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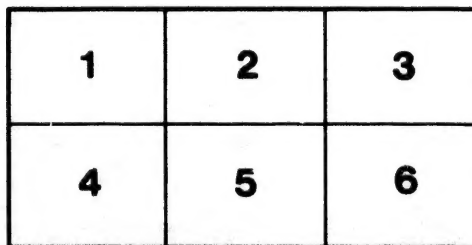
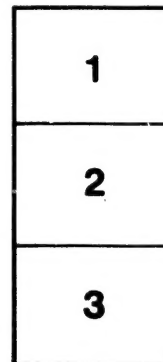
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PRE

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New Brunswick School Series.

PRESCRIBED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION FOR NEW BRUNSWICK.

CANADA:

Short History

OF THE

DOMINION OF CANADA.

BY

ANDREW ARCHER.

FOURTH EDITION. REVISED.

ST. JOHN, N. B.
J. & A. McMILLAN,
1889.

Entered, according to Act of Parliament of Canada, in the year 1884,

BY J. & A. McMILLAN,

In the office of the Minister of Agriculture, at Ottawa.

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HISTORY OF CANADA.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

1. LET the young student look at the map. He will see that the **Dominion of Canada** stretches across the continent from ocean to ocean, from Cape Breton on the east, to Vancouver Island on the west, and north to the Arctic sea. An imaginary line divides the Dominion from the United States: in the western region that line is drawn through the great lakes, Erie, Huron, Superior, and runs west, crossing the Rocky Mountains to the coast of British Columbia. In the east lie the provinces of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario; in the west the province of Manitoba, the North-West Territory, and British Columbia.

2. This vast Dominion, with its populous, enlightened cities, Halifax, St. John, Charlottetown, Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto—the political and commercial capitals of the old provinces, and a score of other thriving and growing towns, with its population of 4,500,000, and its annual commerce of over \$200,000,000, is still but a young country in years. In actual fact the Dominion is, in this year 1884, just 280 years old.

3. Canada has had to struggle against difficulties peculiar to itself. Canada, really, only entered on the course of growth and progress a hundred and twenty years ago, when,

by conquest in 1760, the country came into possession of the British Crown. To show what were the difficulties Canada has had to contend against, and what progress it has made is the purpose of this little book. Looking back to the commencement of its history, we find that in 1504 — 280 years ago — there was in all that widely extended territory of the Dominion only one small settlement, and that on an insignificant island at the mouth of the river St. Croix, which forms part of the boundary of New Brunswick. Our Dominion was then a complete wilderness of lakes, rivers, forests, mountains, and prairie, over which roved tribes of savages, whose only occupation was fighting and hunting. The settlers on this island, called by them St. Croix, were French gentlemen, — priests, traders, adventurers, — all devoted members of the Catholic Church. Among them was a good, brave, adventurous, pious, and able man — seaman and soldier — **Samuel de Champlain**. He, under Providence, was the founder of Canada. He has left upon it the impress of his genius, which will never be obliterated. This Canada, whose boundaries were nearly those of the modern province of Quebec, is, in its spirit, its laws, customs, language, and religious institutions, as much French to-day as it was when, a little over a century ago, it passed into the hands of the British.

4. The French did their part nobly in the forming of Canada. Their temper fitted them to contend against, or to live on friendly terms with, the Indians; and their adventurous spirit prompted them to explore and make known to the world the greater part of the northern continent.

5. With regard to the **Indians**, it may as well be told here as elsewhere, that to the French were known three families: the **Sioux**, southwest of Lake Superior, and northwest to Lake Winnipeg; the **Huron**, a settled agricultural people, who occupied territory between the lakes Erie,

Huron, and Superior; the **Algonquin**, a wandering race of fishers and hunters, who were spread along the northern shores of St. Lawrence, along the coasts of the Gulf and of the Bay of Fundy, and from Maine to Virginia. These three families were divided into numerous tribes and sub-tribes, but we will not inflict their barbarous names on our young readers. The Micmacs and Melicites of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were of the Algonquin family.

6. The **Iroquois**, the most formidable of all the Indian tribes — the Frenchmen's fellest foes — were of the Huron family ("a little more than kin but less than kind"). They held the territory now the northern part of New York. They were divided into five cantons, and were called the "Five Nations," the best known of which is the Mohawks. Their *bourgades* extended between the Mohawk River in the east, and the Genesee River in the west. They were divided into eight clans: the Wolf, Bear, Beaver, Tortoise, Snipe, Deer, Heron, Hawk, and the tie of clanship ran through the five nations — thus a Mohawk "Hawk" was connected with the Hawks of the other four nations.

7. All the **Indians** had the same reddish, tawny skin, coarse black hair, smooth, beardless face, and high cheek-bones. The Hurons were the finest, the tallest, most robust, and most astute of the families, especially the Iroquois branch of it. In temper the Indians, when roused, were as ferocious as wild beasts, but they had their good qualities. They were warriors, hunters, and fishers. They were pitilessly cruel to prisoners taken in the fight, but among themselves they showed much family affection. They had little constructive skill; what they had did not go beyond the building of *bourgades*, the putting-up of wigwams, the building of canoes, the making of snow-shoes, and rude warlike implements. They had some form of government, and willingly followed the lead of the bravest and strong-

est; but no chief had despotic power over them. They were the slaves of superstition. They believed in good and evil spirits, who made their presence known in the sighing of the gentle breeze, the rustling of the leaves, the brawling of the stream, the roar of the cataract, and the howl of the angry wind. They worshipped inanimate objects, plants and stones, but they had a dim idea of a Great Spirit, and a Heaven hereafter; a happy hunting-ground, where game was always plentiful, and where spring eternal reigned.

8. The time of French rule, from 1604 to 1760, was a period of incessant hostilities and of exploratory adventure, but of little agricultural or commercial progress. Canada was a ruined, impoverished country when it passed into the hands of the British. Its population was 60,000. It was neither so populous or wealthy as Prince Edward Island, the smallest member of our Confederation, now is. Canada was, indeed, very backward when it became a British colony. The great province of Ontario, with its population of nigh 2,000,000, had no existence; neither had New Brunswick, which has now 322,000, for it formed part of Nova Scotia (which has now 441,000 people), and the combined population was not over 4,000 or 5,000. Quebec has now over twenty times the population it had when it was French Canada, and its wealth has increased in greater proportion. Aided by **British energy, enterprise, and sound sense**, it has increased greatly. To that energy, enterprise, and sound sense, Canada owes what it enjoys of liberty, constitutional government, freedom of conscience. To them it owes its great systems of intercommunication by road, river, and rail, and its industrial and commercial activity. Since Canada has, in little over a century, grown to what it is now, it may confidently be expected that its growth in the future will be very great.

I. PERIOD OF DISCOVERY.

1497-1603. 106 YEARS.

Leading features. — Columbus, the Cabots. Canada visited by French and English explorers. Unsuccessful attempts at colonization.

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

9. Four hundred years ago America was unknown to the people of Europe. It is more correct to say that the knowledge of a western continent had died out among them. Italian mariners trading to the ports in the Baltic may, it is supposed, have heard of discoveries, made by the Northmen adventurers from Norway, of lands lying far across a vast western ocean, and old records of Iceland told the curious of the voyages of Eric Raude, and other sea-rovers, which showed that they were the first to behold the coast of Labrador, and to enter through the strait that separates Newfoundland from the mainland, into the gulf, and sail along the coast as far south as Narragansett Bay. To the Northmen Newfoundland was "the land of broad stones;" Nova Scotia "the land of woods;" Massachusetts and Rhode Island "the land of vines."

10. The famous Genoese sailor, the immortal Christopher Columbus, is called the discoverer of America (1493). He only touched upon the Bahamas and Cuba and 1498 other outlying islands in his first voyage, and in 1497 he discovered the mainland of South America. He never saw the coast of North America. John and Sebastian Cabot, father and son, the former a native of Venice,

the other born in Bristol, and both doing business as merchants in that city at the time when the discoveries of Columbus aroused wonder and admiration and the spirit of emulation, set out on a voyage of discovery in 1496, and beheld Prima Vista, Newfoundland, on the 24th of June, 1497, and the coast of Labrador. In fact, the Cabots went almost in the same track as Eric the Red, and it is said that they had heard something of the discoveries of the Northmen.

11. The voyages of discovery made by Columbus and the Cabots, and the many adventurers who followed afterwards, were undertaken under the delusion that, by sailing west, India, the land of boundless riches, would be reached, and that a rich reward would be reaped, in gold and precious stones and other treasures, by those who should be so fortunate as to find their way there. On account of that mistake the aboriginal inhabitants of the western continent were called **Indians**. Columbus reaped no rich reward in earthly grandeur for all the arduous labors he undertook and the difficulties and dangers he encountered. He was even robbed of the honor of giving his name to this continent. This honor was given to another Italian mariner, a native of Florence, one **Amerigo Vespucci**, who visited the coast of South America in 1499, two years after it had been discovered by the great Christopher. But Columbus gained an honor which cannot be taken away from him,—the honor of being the first to open up to the people of Europe the permanent way to the western world, which has been to millions a refuge from misfortune, and a place of hope.

12. It is strange, but true, that Columbus, and the other discoverers of America, had the idea that the natives of America had no right whatever to the land of their birth, and which had been in the possession of their ancestors for untold generations. Columbus, on the strength of

having discovered some islands lying outside the coast of the southern part of the northern continent, and the northern part of the southern continent, claimed a vast part of the western hemisphere to be the possession of Ferdinand and Isabella, the King and Queen of Spain, his patrons. Also, the Cabots, because they had surveyed, from the deck of their ship, the coast from Labrador to Florida, claimed the whole of the northern part of the northern continent to be the possession of Henry VII., of England, their patron. This summary way of taking possession of vast continents led to serious inconveniences. **John Verazzani**, another Italian mariner, a Floren-
tine, in the employ of Francis I. of France, ex- 1524
plored, in 1524, the coast from Florida to Newfoundland, and claimed all that part of the northern continent, to which he gave the name of "New France," to be the possession of his patron. From those conflicting claims rose trouble between England and France, as any true history of North America will show.

13. It was ten years after the voyage of John Verazzani that the first exploration into the interior of the
northern part of the northern continent, now known 1534
as the Dominion of Canada, was made. The voyages of Jacques Cartier, the mariner of Bretagne, France, who first explored the coast of our own New Brunswick, entered and named the Bay of Chaleur, and ascended the noble **River St. Lawrence**, ought to be specially interesting to all Canadian youths. We have not dwelt long on the discoveries made by Columbus and the Cabots, and other explorers. The young student can read of their adventures elsewhere, but we will enter more into detail of the voyages of Cartier, whose name is a household word in Canada, and we will begin a new chapter with his adventures.

CHAPTER II.

JACQUES CARTIER.

14. At this period Europe was in the midst of the events which led to the Reformation, the greatest event in modern history. Men's minds were deeply stirred, and it was a time of daring adventure in thought and action. Francis I. of France was at war with his great rival, Charles V., Emperor of Germany and King of Spain and the Netherlands. In the intervals of the struggle he had leisure to think of the unknown lands across the western ocean, which, ten years before, Verazzani had claimed as the possession of the Crown of France. No doubt, on account of his continuous wars, the king was much in want of money, and he and his favorite companion at court thought that it would be a good thing to send out an expedition to reach the Indies by sailing west, and bring back gold and other treasures to fill the treasury. So Jacques Cartier, a man of some reputation, and a master-pilot of the fortified seaport of St. Malo, on the north-west coast of France, was commissioned to sail with two small vessels and a crew of convicts. He left his native port on the last day of April, and was out at sea nearly two months before he descried the icebergs and the coast of Labrador, and sailed through the strait which separates that coast from Newfoundland. He struck across the Gulf, and noted islands white with wild fowl. On a hot, sweltering day in July (the 3d) he entered a deep and shining bay, which ever since has been known as the Bay of Chaleur. Finding no passage to the west in that direction, he sailed north, and, encountering stormy weather, was forced to seek shelter in the Bay of Penouil, north of Gaspé Bay. He landed, and, much to the amazement of some savages (as the French

called them), erected a cross, with an inscription on it, — in this way taking possession of their country. These savages were Micmacs, or “salt-water” Indians. They soon grew friendly with the good-natured Frenchmen, who gave them little presents, and Cartier took on board of his ship the two sons of the old chief, and, still sailing north, came in sight of the whitish cliffs on the coast of the inhospitable island of Anticosti, which he named L’Assumption. The weather soon after growing threatening he returned to France.

15. Next year, on the 1st of August, **St. Lawrence’s Day**, three French vessels, under the command of Cartier, were anchored on the northwest coast of Anticosti, which lies at the mouth of the great river. He then named the gulf and river St. Lawrence. He had with him several French gentlemen, who had volunteered in hope of gainful adventure, and he had crossed the ocean with the ¹⁵³⁵ blessing of the church. Not only the hope of gaining wealth and honor, but the desire to bring the savages within the fold of the church, had impelled Cartier to undertake this second expedition.

16. The little fleet sailed up the great river, passing the Seven Islands, the mouth of the gloomy Saguenay, the “Isle de Coudres,” and the Isle of Bacchus (now Orleans), which divided the river into two channels. Soon his vessels were surrounded and boarded by whooping and yelling savages, who, in canoes, had darted out from the north shore of the river, and in this noisy fashion they welcomed the Frenchmen to the country which was not long to remain theirs. The country was not then called Canada; in fact it is not clearly known when or why it acquired that name. It is said to be a modification of an Indian word, “Kanata,” signifying a cluster of cabins.

17. Escorted by these red and ready friends, the Frenchmen in their vessels passed through the northern channel

of the river into a broad basin, into which projected a high, rocky promontory, on which, in after years, rose the fortress of Quebec, the central spot in the history of Canada. The little river St. Charles wound round at its eastern foot, and there was situated **Stadaconé**, the town of **Dunnaconna**, the chief of the Indian tribes who were scattered along the St. Lawrence. That chief tried to dissuade Cartier from ascending further up the river, but without avail. Cartier was curious to see Hochelaga, the principal town of the tribe. In working his way up, he missed the channel (St. Peter's), and had to take to his boats. On the evening of October 3, he arrived opposite the town, and, with his companions and crew, encamped on shore. The simple savages kept up a gleeful dance around the watch-fires all through the night, in honor of their visitors, the strange white men. Next morning, Cartier, with his companions in martial array, entered the town and was clamorously welcomed by the women and children, and decorously by the warriors. They looked on him as on a superior being who had the issues of life and death in his hands, and they brought out to him their old paralytic chief, and the sick, the blind, and the halt, to be cured by a touch. Cartier could do nothing, but he read a portion of Scripture and made the sign of the cross. After showering little presents among the crowd, the gallant Frenchmen left the town, and quitted a scene which was becoming painful. Before leaving the island, Cartier ascended the mountain, which he named **Mont Royal** (hence **Montreal**). As it was late in the season when he again reached **Stadaconé**, he determined to winter in a small fort which was erected at the foot of the rock. Seventy-five of his crew died from the rigor of the cold and from scurvy. He determined to return home in spring. As he could take neither gold nor precious stones to France, not having found any, he persuaded **Dunna-**

onna and four other chiefs to sail with him, but at the same time he assured the Indians, who were suspicious of his intentions, that he would without fail return in the following year, bringing their chiefs with him.

18. He did not return the following year, nor for five years: the chiefs never returned. Francis I. was disappointed at not receiving heaps of treasure. His weary wars occupied his attention. Besides, stories were told which were not favorable to Canada. But the royal interest did revive. The king appointed **M. de Roberval** vicaroy over all the country discovered by Cartier, and chief of an expedition of which Cartier was the master-pilot. There can be little doubt but that the proud Breton mariner was very much displeased at being placed in a secondary position.

19. He left St. Malo in a bad temper, before his chief had given orders. This did not augur well, besides he could not but know that he would not be well received by the Indians. When he again met them he told them that Dunnaconna was dead, and trumped up 1541 a story that the other chiefs were merry and married, and living in state in France, — a story that was not likely to reassure suspicious savages. The happy times of trust and cordiality were over.

20. Cartier moved further up the river, and formed a settlement on the height at Cap Rouge, which he called **Charlesbourg Royal**. It was not destined to be permanent. In the spring he set sail with his vessels. He was disgusted with the experience of another dreadful winter, disappointed at not finding gold, and disaffected toward the expedition. He put into the harbor of St. Jean (St. John's, Newfoundland), where then lay the vessels of his chief. **M. Roberval** angrily ordered him to return, but under cover of night his master-pilot sailed away to St. Malo.

21. It is said that Cartier sailed with another expedition, by command of the king, to ascertain the fate of De Roberval. It is certain that he never found the unfortunate viceroy, who perished, along with his crew of mutinous convicts, by famine, cold, and disease. Jacques Cartier lived to a good old age in his seignorial mansion, and wrote an account of his voyages. He discovered the country of Canada: the founder, Champlain, was to come afterwards, but not for half a century. In the interval, voyages were made by **Martin Frobisher** to the coasts of Labrador and Greenland, 1576-1578. **Sir Humphrey Gilbert** made a settlement in Newfoundland in 1583. He perished in a storm at sea.

LEADING DATES OF PERIOD OF DISCOVERY.

	A. D.
Eric Raude discovers Greenland and Labrador . . .	982
Christopher Columbus discovers islands of West Indies	1493
John and Sebastian Cabot come in sight of Prima Vista (Newfoundland)	1497
John Verazzani's voyage from Florida to Newfoundland	1524
Jacques Cartier's first voyage	1534
Jacques Cartier's second and third voyages . .	1535-1542
Martin Frobisher's voyages to Greenland and Labrador	1576-1578

II. FRENCH PERIOD.

1603-1760. 153 years.

Leading features.— Fur Trade and Fisheries established. Exploration and war. The French contend with the Iroquois for existence, and with the English for dominion. Triumph of the English. Time of settlement.

CHAPTER I.

DE MONTS AND CHAMPLAIN.

22. No attempt at permanent settlement was made in Canada for many years after De Roberval's dismal failure. But, yearly, the fishing fleets appeared off the "banks" of Newfoundland, the coasts of Cape Breton, and in the Gulf, and French, English, Italians, and Spaniards shared in the profits of the rich fisheries.

23. The merchants of the seaports of France engaged in the fur trade of the St. Lawrence, and it was not to their interest to colonize Canada. In fact, the traders would have kept the country a wilderness; it was valuable to them only for the skins of its wild animals. They were very jealous of monopolies of trade granted by the crown to favorites, and their jealousies and rivalries long kept back the settlement of the country.

24. When civil and religious wars came to an end in France, and Henry IV. was king, the spirit of adventure revived. **1598** *Sieur de Roche* was granted a commission similar to De Roberval's, but he did nothing, except to leave on the little sandy Sable Island a number of his mutinous crew, who for five years lived there, sustained by the flesh of the wild cattle — (the progeny of the animals

left by a Baron de Lery in 1518) — and only a few survived to be taken back to France.

25. A few years afterwards, M. Pontgravé and M. Chauvin made a settlement at Tadousac, in the Saguenay, which was long the centre of the fur trade of the St. Lawrence. Then M. de Chastes, governor of Dieppe, received a commission similar to that given to De Roche, and he essayed to found a colony in Canada. He had Pontgravé with him, and Samuel de Champlain.

26. Champlain was a remarkable man. At this time he was about thirty years of age, and had seen much service by land and sea. He was fond of adventure. He was no mere trader. He was a brave, resolute, devout man. With him the history of Canada really commences. Had not De Chastes died, Champlain would, at this time, have ascended the St. Lawrence far above the point reached by Cartier. That work was deferred. He and a kindred spirit, Baron Poutrincourt, joined M. de Monts, who was appointed governor-general of Acadie (that is, of the territory now occupied by the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick). De Monts had a monopoly of the fur trade of the St. Lawrence, and Pontgravé was the active head of it. He had with him, when he sailed for Acadie, 1604 a number of French gentlemen, priests, soldiers, artisans and laborers. He was a Huguenot himself, but his colony was to be Catholic. He made for the southeast of Acadie, and in the first harbor entered, he seized the only vessel there, belonging to one Rossignol, and the harbor was called after the unfortunate trader. This act showed that De Monts was determined to uphold his rights. From that harbor he sailed southwest, and round Cape Sable north into the narrow bay of St. Mary's; then entered French Bay (Bay of Fundy), and cruised along its coasts, passing through the gut that opened into a spacious placid harbor, which was then named Port

Royal; thence he sailed to the Basin of Minas, and from this Bay, on the 24th of June, reached a fine harbor on the northern shore, at the mouth of the great river Ouigouidi, which, with the harbor, was named **St. Jean (St. John)**. The young student can easily follow De Monts' exploratory voyage on the maps. He sailed from St. John to Passamaquoddy Bay. It is strange that, having seen what he had seen, he should have selected the little island at the mouth of a large river (both then named **St. Croix**) as the site for his colony. But it was the time of continual war, and he had to guard against attack, and the island seemed to him "strong by nature and easy of defence." But it was a most unfortunate location. A quadrangle of buildings, surrounded by rude fortifications, was erected before the setting in of winter. Its keen, icy northwest winds chilled the Frenchmen to the heart, filled them with gloom, and they fell an easy prey to disease. Thirty-five died; as many were brought to death's doors. Amidst so much to discourage him, Champlain lost neither heart nor hope. In Spring the colony removed to **Port Royal**, and De Monts, with Poutrincourt, returned to France to stop the intriguing of jealous merchants who were seeking to deprive him of his privileges. He was successful for the time.

27. When Poutrincourt returned in the spring of 1606, he brought with him **Marc Lescarbot**, a lawyer without practice, a wit, a rhymist, a writer, — a man who 1606 could turn his hand to almost anything. Cheerfulness now pervaded the colony. Marc took charge of the fort, and the agricultural operations around it. Those who were not farming went hunting and fishing with the Indians. Champlain explored the rugged coasts of the country which, sixteen years afterwards, was named **New England**. When he returned rather out of humor, the merry Marc acted a play to cheer him, and, as Father

Neptune, welcomed him back from his cruise with a poetical address. Marc had a remarkable flow of spirits and enlivened all around him. The "**Order of the Good Time**" was instituted by fifteen gentlemen of the colony, and each in his turn acted as grand master, and catered for the company, and strove to surpass his friendly rivals in the bounteousness of his table. Game and fish were plentiful, the winter was mild, the ancient Sagamore Membertou and other Micmac chiefs were honored guests at the tables, while a crowd of warriors, women and children, squatted about the hall, were fed from them. But "the Good Time" was all too brief. The colony was broken up in spring. De Monts' enemies had prevailed over him for the time. This breaking up was a grief to Champlain and Lescarbot. The Indians were disconsolate at their sudden departure, and were only consoled by a promise of a speedy return.

CHAPTER II.

QUEBEC.

28. M. DE MONTS obtained the renewal of his monopoly for another year, but Champlain did not return to Port Royal. He, with Pontgravé, sailed to the St. Lawrence to found a colony, and he chose the site where the Indian town of Stadaconé once stood.

29. During the summer the work of building a habitation and surrounding it with fortifications was carried
1608 out. This was the beginning of Quebec. The foundation stone of his colony was thus, we may say, placed, but he had to face many difficulties, many trials, many weary voyages across the ocean, before that stone was firmly laid. One of his great difficulties was with the

hostile Indians. He was urged by his spirit of adventure to explore the country, but he could only do this with the aid of friendly Indians, and to obtain their good-will he aided them in their wars against the Iroquois. Hence, in after years arose unnumbered woes to Canada. He accompanied an allied band of Algonquin and Huron warriors, whom he met at the mouth of the Iroquois (Richelieu) River, to attack the cantons of the Mohawks. The party ascended that river and entered the grand lake (Champlain) enclosed by lofty, verdurous mountains, which narrows to the breadth of a river, and opens into a beautiful sheet of water, "the holy lake" (Lake George). The allies with their champion, with "the iron breast" at their head, gained an easy victory. The proud Mohawks knew nothing of the strange weapon Champlain carried, which killed with flame and thunder, and they fled with dismay after two or three discharges of his carabine, which killed as many of their chiefs. Champlain was ashamed and enraged at the cruel use the allies made of their victory. He never could prevail on his Indian friends not to torture their prisoners, but afterwards, out of respect, they forebore to do it in his presence.

30. When the term of De Monts' monopoly expired, the St. Lawrence was invaded by French traders, 1611-12 who in exchange for cheap hatchets, knives, and kettles, got the best of the beaver skins. Champlain caused a station to be erected on the Isle of Montreal to intercept the canoes laden with peltry that had descended the St. Lawrence, but the rude and boisterous traders ascended as far as Sault St. Louis, where they bullied the timid Indians and carried away the best of the furry spoil. Champlain saw that, unless the traders were checked, his colony would perish. He succeeded in placing it under the patronage of the Princes of Condé. Under their vice-

royalty he was lieutenant with absolute civil and military jurisdiction, and exclusive trade privileges. This monopoly, of course, excited the wrath of the traders. His troubles with them were never-ending. The merchants of Rochelle, who were Huguenots, were jealous of the merchants of St. Malo and Rouen, who were Catholics, and would not join with them, though invited to do so. The latter formed themselves into a body, under the name of "**Associated Merchants.**" Soon a coolness grew up between them and Champlain, who constantly urged upon them the duty of sending out to Canada, colonists and priests. To get rid of his importunity they schemed against him, and tried to deprive him of his position. He had not an easy time of it.

31. But midst his manifold troubles, Champlain held to his great purpose of "**exploring the country.**" He, no doubt, found relief to his mind in pushing his way into the calm solitudes of nature, but even there he met disappointments. He ascended the river Ottawa, passing the Chaudière Falls as far as the Isle d'Allumette. His enthusiasm had been aroused by a lying story told by one Vignan, who pretended that he had ascended the Ottawa to its source in a lake, and that he had followed the course of a river that flowed into it until he reached a great sea. Champlain imagined that, launched on this sea, he would reach the east and the rich Indies, and that he would have the honor of solving the problem that had perplexed navigators since the time of Christopher Columbus. He was very angry at being made the dupe of an impostor.

32. In the year 1615 there came out to Quebec four **Recollet Monks**, an Order of Franciscans, who abjured all worldly ambition, took the vow of perpetual poverty, and wore the coarsest dress. Two of the Fathers were stationed at Quebec, and it was not long before a small chapel and a convent were erected on the banks of the

St. Charles River. Another Father was stationed at Tadousac. Father Le Caron went to the Huron country. He would have accompanied Champlain, but the capricious Indian guides went on before with the holy father, and left the latter in a rage to follow as best he could. Champlain, accompanied by **Brulé**, the first Canadian voyageur, and four others, ascended the Ottawa to Isle d'Allumette; from thence over a sterile country he made his way to Lake Nipissing, and followed the course of French River until he reached the Georgian Bay of Lake Huron. He skirted the shore of that bay until he reached the smaller bay, Matchedash. Then he landed and travelled through a fertile and pleasant land of vale and stream to the chief Huron town **Cahlague**, at the north-eastern extremity of Lake Simcoe (we only give the modern names). Here he met Father Le Caron, and here, on the 12th of August, divine service was first performed in that heathen country. Here, also, on the 1st of September, a crowd of Huron and Algonquin warriors assembled for another war expedition against the Iroquois, which Champlain had, unfortunately, promised to lead. Without waiting the arrival of five hundred "Erie" Indians the war parties set out. They struck a trail through a country which looked like a great pleasure park until they reached Lake Ontario, and, crossing its eastern extremity in canoes, advanced into the country of the Senecas, the eastern Iroquois. If the "allies" had listened to the advice of Champlain they would have achieved another victory. They, under his directions, made movable parapets to shield them from the fire of the foe when advancing to destroy his palisades, but they would take no advantage of them. They became discouraged after suffering a trifling loss, and when no Eries came to aid them they retreated toward Lake Ontario, carrying back with them Champlain, who was wounded, a virtual pris-

oner, to the Huron country. There he remained all winter, hunting, and studying the customs and superstitions of the Indians, and writing his observations in a book.

33. The work of colonizing Canada went on very slowly. It was not until 1617 that the first regular settlers — Louis Hebert, his wife and two children — came out to Quebec. Two years afterwards, when the Duc de Montmorency was viceroy, a party, accompanied by three Recollet priests, was sent out from France. Champlain then took out his young and beautiful wife, who at first showed great interest in teaching the Indian children. But her enthusiasm soon waned amid the many discomforts of her position, and she went back to France after a few years. On account of their not doing their duty as colonizers, "the Associated Merchants" were deprived of their monopoly. It was granted to two Huguenot gentlemen, Guillaume and Emory de Caen; then "the Associated Merchants" were admitted to share the privilege, but the welfare of the colony was not advanced by this union of Catholic and Protestant interests. It introduced religious discord into it.

1625 34. The Duc de Vantadour succeeded his uncle the Duc de Montmorency in 1625. It was a time of great religious enthusiasm in France, and the new Viceroy showed great zeal in the work of converting the Indians. The priests chosen for the work were of the celebrated "Order of Jesus," the Jesuit Fathers. Their coming was opposed by Catholic and Huguenot merchants alike; but they soon established themselves and made their power felt in the colony.

CHAPTER III.

DESTRUCTION OF PORT ROYAL. — FIRST CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.

35. WHILE Champlain was striving to found a colony on the St. Lawrence the settlement in Acadie was exposed to many dangers, and all but utterly destroyed. Poutrincourt returned to Port Royal in 1610, and with him came his son, Biencourt. He was placed in a difficult position. He had gained the aid, for his enterprise, of a Huguenot merchant of Dieppe, who strongly objected to his taking out certain Jesuit Fathers, as people of standing about the court wished him to do. He adopted a middle course, and took out a priest named La Fleche. To show his zeal for the conversion of the heathen, the Patriarch, as he was called, induced the ancient sagamore, Membertou, and all his family to be baptized and to enter the fold of the church. Poutrincourt sent his son home with the registry of baptism, a sight of which inflamed the zeal of certain great ladies about the court, particularly of a Madame de Guercheville. Biencourt, urgently pressed, consented to take out two Jesuit Fathers when he returned, and this consent, wrung from him, caused the Huguenot merchant in Dieppe to refuse all further aid. He was constrained, therefore, to accept the assistance of "Madame," and through her means the "Society of Jesus" became partners with Poutrincourt by contributing a sum of money and advancing other sums as loans. Biencourt was appointed vice-admiral of the seas of New France, and he sailed in 1611 with Fathers Biard and Masse, and two men famous in the history of Acadie, Claude Etienne, and Charles Amadour de la Tour, father and son. Poutrincourt returned to France, and left his son governor at Port Royal. There was after that no

"good time" there. Biencourt would not tolerate any interference with his authority, and the Fathers revolted against the overbearing temper of the young governor. Masse visited the Indians of the St. John, but not even the discord in Port Royal could reconcile him to the filth of their wigwams. The bad feeling was increased when "Madame," who obtained from the French king a grant of all the territory given to De Monts, sent out Father du Thet to look after the interests of the colony. Then there was open war, and the Fathers excommunicated the governor, and refused to officiate at the altar. After a time an outward reconciliation took place, but the efforts of the Fathers were thenceforth directed to force Poutrincourt to abandon Port Royal. They were unsuccessful, and "Madame," with their support, resolved to make a settlement in another place. The place chosen was a sheltered spot on Penobscot Bay, which was called *St. Sauveur*.

36. The English colony of Virginia was then in the first years of its existence. We have stated already that **1613** the English, by right of the Cabots' discovery, claimed all the territory from Labrador to Florida, as did the French in right of Verazzani's. A Virginian sea-captain — a bold, unscrupulous man — *Samuel Argall*, learning that the French had made a settlement about Penobscot Bay, resolved to treat them as invaders. All unexpectedly his ships appeared in the bay, flying the red flag. The French governor hurried his men on board his only ship to meet the intruder, but after a brief engagement he was forced to haul down his white flag. The English landed and plundered and burned the settlement; and the poor settlers, governor, priests, and all, were sent adrift or taken prisoners to Virginia. It was a **cruel, unjustifiable act**. But Argall, not satisfied with the havoc he had made, sailed next year for the Bay of Fundy (or Argall Bay, as it was then and long afterwards called), and de-

stroyed Port Royal, erasing every memorial of De Monts, Champlain, and Lescarbot. Poutrincourt then returned to France and died not long after like a brave soldier as he was, in battle. His son, along with Charles de la Tour, remained in Acadie among the Micmacs, still asserting himself to be its commandant under the King of France.

37. After Argall's exploits the English crown made a definite claim to the territory, which was then called **1624** **New England**, by granting it to an association, — the Grand Council of Plymouth. To one member of this council — a Scottish knight, high in favor at court — King James I. granted a charter, conceding to him Cape Breton and the Peninsula, and all the lands between the Bay of Fundy and the St. Lawrence; in short, Acadie, Quebec, and all. Sir William Alexander saw a New France and a New England on the American continent, and he had the ambition to found a New Scotland or **Nova Scotia**. All his ambitious projects failed, but the name he gave remained. He sent out, in 1622, some Scotchmen, who made a settlement and built a fort on the west side of the basin of Port Royal, opposite Goat Island, but they did not interfere with the French already settled in Acadie. Claude la Tour held a fort at the mouth of the St. John, and his son, after the death of Biencourt, succeeded to the nominal dignity of commandant of Acadie, and maintained himself in Fort Louis, on the harbor of L'Omeron, at Cape Sable.

38. After the death of King James, Charles I. confirmed this grant to Sir William, and at the same time the order of the Knights-Baronets of **Nova Scotia** was **1625** founded, which consisted of one hundred and fifty members, who received extensive grants of land on condition of sending out settlers.

39. Champlain did not hear unmoved of the foundation of a New England and a New Scotland in what he held

was territory of France. He thought her claim should be reasserted. And he saw that his wretched colony
1627 could never prosper in the hands of the jealous merchants of the seaports. His representations awakened interest in France. With the approval of the great Cardinal Richelieu, a royal charter was granted to a "**New Company of the Hundred Associates,**" which ceded to them the country from Florida to Labrador, with power to grant lands and bestow titles. The monopoly of the fur trade and commerce was given to them. In return for these vast privileges they bound themselves to send out fifteen hundred colonists, Frenchmen and Catholics, in ten years, and ten thousand in all by the year 1653.

40. The reign of the "New Company" opened inauspiciously. There was then war between France and England. Sir William Alexander, thinking it to be a favorable time to take formal possession of his territories, sent out Admiral David Kirkt to seize Port Royal and Quebec. After taking the first place Kirkt sailed up the St. Lawrence to Tadousac, but, deceived by the bold tone assumed by Champlain, he did not ascend to Quebec. In the Gulf he encountered and vanquished a French fleet, and captured several vessels of the "New Company." Before Kirkt ascended to Quebec next year peace was concluded by the **Convention of Susa**, April 24, 1629; but he did not choose to believe this, as he thought that the capture of Quebec would indemnify him for the sums he had spent in equipping his fleet. He took Quebec, but was miserably disappointed. Champlain returned to France, and his sole thought was to regain possession of his beloved habitation.

41. By the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye (1632), **Canada and Acadie were restored to the French crown.** Had not Champlain pressed upon the Royal Council of France their importance, the king would not have demanded their

restitution. After his return to the Quebec he loved so well, Champlain devoted himself to the work of establishing missions and extending the fur trade. On Christmas Day, 1635, the father and founder of Canada passed away.

42. **Sir William Alexander's project in Nova Scotia failed.** The Knights-Baronets sent out no colonists. Claude la Tour, who was on board a vessel of the "New Company" captured by Kirkt (1628), when taken to England was very much made of by Sir William (who, about this time, became Earl Stirling). He was persuaded to become a British subject, and to engage that his son would do the same, and they were both created baronets. Claude married a lady of the court, and sailed in state to take charge of the colony. He could not prevail over his son Charles to change his allegiance, and he lost credit both with the English and his own countrymen, and lived miserably estranged from his son, but indebted to him for shelter.

43. After the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, **Isaac de Razalli was appointed commandant of Acadie**, and under him Seigneur d'Aulnay Charnisé was lieutenant of the country north of the Bay of Fundy to the Kennebec on the west, and Charles la Tour of the Peninsula.

CHAPTER IV.

THE RULE OF THE CHURCH.

44. "THE Hundred Associates" held their charter for over a quarter of a century, but they did nothing to advance the interests of the colony. The Recollets were recalled to France, and the Jesuit Fathers were its guides and masters, and had full sway. **This rule of the church was**

very strict. M. Montmagny, who succeeded Champlain as governor, gave them zealous support.

45. It was a time of religious excitement in France, and in their zeal for the spread of the Catholic religion and **1636** the conversion of the heathen, wealthy and pious people turned their eyes to the "New France" as a glorious field. By their aid the principal colleges, hospitals, and seminaries in Quebec were founded. The Fathers had schools for the instruction of Indian children, and missions for the conversion of the adults—and their patience and faith were severely tried by the unwillingness of the young to learn, and the inability of the elders to remember the truths they were told. The chief mission was in the Huron country between the Great Lakes. The position of the Fathers Brebœuf, Daniel, Davoust, and others who maintained it, was not an easy one, and could only have been sustained by ardent faith in their religion, and a calm, resolute temper. They had a heathen party in active hostility to them, but their kindness and attention to the sick won the hearts of the majority of the people. "The Hundred Associates" accused them of enriching themselves by the profits of the fur trade. They certainly were in the best possible position to do that, had they been so inclined.

46. At this time the foundation of Montreal was laid. The **1641-2** story, as told, reads like a romance, but we cannot tell it here in full. In Paris, a "Société de Nôtre Dame de Montréal" was formed with forty-five members, with the purpose of founding a seminary, Hotel Dieu (hospital) and college on the Isle of Montreal. The isle was purchased from one of "the Hundred," and the command of the proposed colony given to a gallant soldier, M. de Maisonneuve. Before the expedition sailed, the members of the society met in the Cathedral of Nôtre Dame, in Paris, and dedicated Ville Marie de Montréal to

the Holy Family. An attempt was made to deter Maisonneuve, when he reached Quebec, from proceeding further, by depicting the dangers to which his colony would be exposed from the attacks of the savages, but he stoutly said he would go, though every tree were an Iroquois. Accompanied by the governor and all the notable people of Quebec, his party ascended the St. Lawrence, and on the 17th of May, 1642, landed on a tongue of land formed by the junction of the Calière rivulet and the St. Lawrence. There they pitched their tents and erected their altar, and made a beginning of the city of Montreal. The Iroquois, many of whom now carried firearms supplied by the Dutch of Manhattan, recommenced, at this time, to spread alarm throughout the colony and work havoc among the Indian tribes friendly to the French. Some of the Jesuit Fathers, travelling from Quebec to the Huron country, were taken by bands of Mohawks, and carried prisoners to their canton, where they were treated with horrid cruelty. These terrible warriors were not long in discovering the weakness of Ville Marie, and thenceforth there was no peace for its people, and they hardly dared to go outside of their fortifications to cut firewood. One day, however, when their watch-dogs bayed an alarm, warning them that **Indians were in the woods**, their valor got the better of their discretion, and they demanded of Maisonneuve to lead them against the foe. With difficulty they penetrated the forest, where no foe was visible, when suddenly the **Mohawk warriors** started from their coverts with fierce yells, discharged their weapons, and quickly sank out of sight. Several of the Frenchmen fell, and the rest retreated, carrying their dead and wounded. Maisonneuve, facing the foe, was in the rear, with a pistol in each hand. Two chiefs rushed forward to capture him, but he shot one, and while the warriors were crowding round their fallen comrade, he and

his party escaped within their fortifications. The spot where this incident occurred was afterwards named "Place d'Armes."

47. **The Huron mission** was for a brief time prosperous and peaceful. Its chief station was at **Ste. Marie**, on the **1648** little river, now called the Wye, that falls into Matchedash Bay. There the priests of the other stations, St. Louis, St. Ignace, St. Jean, St. Joseph, and St. Michel, often met for consultation. What principally troubled them was the apathy of the warriors who should have kept a vigilant lookout. Their forebodings proved too true. One July morning, while Father Daniel was ministering in the little chapel of St. Joseph, a band of Iroquois burst through the palisades of the village and slaughtered the women, children, and old men. All the warriors were away on the Ottawa, and the fiends met no resistance. **Father Daniel was killed at the altar**, and the mission was totally destroyed. Next spring the same fate befel St. Ignace, St. Louis, and Ste. Marie; Fathers Brebœuf and Lallemant, captured in St. Louis, were put to death after fearful and prolonged tortures. Thus came to an end the mission in the Huron country, though one bearing the same name was established at Sorel, near Quebec. There a remnant of the poor people were gathered after this catastrophe. Many of the Jesuit missionaries left Canada, but not a few remained to dare to penetrate the wilds of the Far West, and of the regions around Hudson Bay. They strove hard to gain a foothold among the Five Nations, braving the wrath and the treachery of the warriors. Many tales could be told of their heroism and hairbreadth escapes from horrid deaths.

48. At this time the government of the **New England colonies** made a proposal to the Governor-General, M. d'Ailleboust, that there should be free trade and perpetual amity

between the French and English colonies, even in the event of the mother countries being at war. Negotiations for a treaty to that effect were broken off, because the New Englanders would not agree to the condition that they should join with the French in waging an exterminating war against the Iroquois. So these red demons were left free to terrorize the poor *habitans*, to insult their governors-general, and to reduce the colonies to a state of the direst distress.

49. Ville Marie did not prosper in the hands of the society which founded it, and it was handed over to the Superiors of the Seminary of St. Sulpicius, a society 1658 of great repute and power in Paris. Under its auspices a seminary and institution for the religious and secular education of the young of both sexes were instituted. Changes were also made in the government of the church, and M. de Laval (one of the most noted men in early Canadian history) was appointed Ecclesiastical Superior. It was not until 1670 that the church in Canada was erected into a bishopric, in dependence on the Papal See, when M. de Laval became the first bishop. The times in Canada until the year 1663 were very bad; the colony was neglected by the new company, and little cared for at home. The terror produced by the incursions of hostile savages was constant and painful. The liquor traffic caused dissensions; total prohibition could not be maintained, though to sell brandy was made a penal offence. The "fire-water" made victims among the friendly Indians. A party of "libertines," who revolted against the rigid rule of the priests, put themselves in opposition to the church. M. de Laval, unable to bring the malcontents to reason, crossed to France to lay his complaints and the wretched state of the colony before the Royal Council.

50. The annals of the Jesuit Fathers give wondrous ac-

counts of strange signs in the skies, and of a fearful earthquake. Altogether the times were as bad then as they have ever been in Canada, and, indeed, the Colony was in danger of being broken up.

CHAPTER V.

THE FEUDS OF D'AULNAY AND LA TOUR.

51. Razilli, commandant of Acadie, died in 1636, and left no one in single authority over the colony. Nicolas Denys (one of its earliest historians) became governor of the country from Canceau, along the gulf shore, to Cape Gaspé. Bitter strife arose between the two lieutenants. D'Aulnay, outside his own government north of the Bay of Fundy, held Penobscot Fort and Port Royal, within the command of La Tour, and La Tour, besides the command of the Peninsula, held the fort at the mouth of the St. John, within the government of D'Aulnay. Such a state of things was sure to produce war between two ambitious men, who both sought to have the sole command of Acadie and the whole profits of the fur trade. D'Aulnay was a harsh, vindictive, overbearing man; La Tour had a genial temper; he was one who was all things to all men; but he was not scrupulous in the ways he took to accomplish his purposes. Our sympathy goes with him because of the heroism of his wife. Her enemies said that she incited her husband to the rebellious course he pursued, and was the principal promoter of all the trouble. But a man's enemies will say anything. D'Aulnay had influential friends in France, and he was a Catholic; La Tour was a Catholic, too, but his wife was a Huguenot, and he was in constant commercial intercourse with the Huguenot merchants of Rochelle and with the Puritans of Massachu-

setts, and sought the aid of their government to destroy the fort at Penobscot held by D'Aulnay. This fact was persistently used by D'Aulnay to raise a prejudice against his rival in the Catholic court of France, where he was made to appear as an enemy to his country and to his religion. He gained his point. **The king revoked the commission of La Tour**, who was recalled to France to answer certain charges against him. He refused to obey the summons, and he fortified himself in his "strong, sufficient fort" at the mouth of the St. John. D'Aulnay, with a fleet, appeared at Partridge Island, and blockaded the harbor, to compel him to surrender. But while his ships and pinnaces lay in the two channels, La Tour and his wife, under cover of night, stole from the port, and boarded a friendly vessel from Rochelle bound for St. John, which he had signalled to beware of the enemy, and sailed away to Boston. Cautious Governor Winthrop of Boston would not openly espouse his cause, but he allowed him to hire New England ships and soldiers. With the aid thus obtained he sailed for Partridge Island, and the strength of his force frightened D'Aulnay so much that he ordered sails to be spread, and his fleet sailed across the bay into the basin of Port Royal, followed by La Tour's, which there inflicted on him considerable damage. This check only embittered D'Aulnay the more against his rival. **The feud ran on its bitter way for several years.** D'Aulnay proclaimed his rival a rebel against his king's authority, and gradually, by representations of La Tour's position, drew away from his side the Massachusetts government. He attacked the St. John fort in the absence of La Tour, and, though it was weakly garrisoned and commanded by a woman, he was repulsed with loss. But again, with greater force, he returned to the attack, and this time, through the treachery of a Swiss guard, who did not give warning, he was able to approach the fort and try and take

it by storm. His soldiers scaled the walls, but brave Madame La Tour and her fifty men made so vigorous a resistance that he had recourse to craft to induce the lady to surrender. He offered such honorable terms that she accepted them. But he basely broke his plighted word, and hanged all the garrison save one, who acted as executioner, and subjected Madame to the cruel indignity of witnessing the execution with the hangman's rope around her neck. It broke her heart.

52. La Tour, after the death of his wife and the loss of his fort, appeared to be a ruined man. But as the poet says, "the whirligig of time brings about its revenges." After a few years of feudal state in Port Royal, D'Aulnay came to his death by drowning, and left a heavy debt. La Tour then emerged from obscurity, cleared his character from the charges brought against it by his late rival, and was appointed commandant of Acadie; and, strangest stroke of fortune, he married D'Aulnay's widow to settle some question of jurisdiction between her and himself. But he was not left in peace. One Emmanuel Borgne, D'Aulnay's chief creditor, seized on Acadie in satisfaction of his debt. He established himself in Port Royal, destroyed the settlement made by Nicolas Denys on Cape Breton, and was preparing to dispossess La Tour, when four English ships, bearing five hundred New England soldiers under
1654 Colonel Sedgwick, sailed from Boston, captured Fort Penobscot, and compelled La Borgne ignominiously to surrender Port Royal. To explain this action: Oliver Cromwell, being at war with the Dutch at Manhattan, demanded aid from Massachusetts, but, before the force was raised, peace was concluded, and Colonel Sedgwick, who had received secret orders to that effect, seized on Acadie.

53. Even then La Tour was not ruined. He was not a man to lose anything for want of asking for it. He went

to England, and claimed as his legal right the grant made by Sir William Alexander to his father and himself, and his claim was allowed by the Protector. Then, with Sir Thomas Temple and William Crowne, he entered into joint possession of Acadie, but shortly afterwards disposed of his interest to Temple. For eleven years Acadie remained in the hands of both English and French. — and La Tour died, as his rival did, by drowning, before it was fully restored to the French. Temple would fain have held the forts, on which he had expended much money, but on a peremptory order from Charles II. he delivered them up to Chevalier Grand-Fontaine. The king promised him compensation, which was, it is said, never paid.

LEADING DATES — FRENCH PERIOD — TIME OF SETTLEMENT.

	A. D.
Sieur de la Roche, Viceroy of Canada	1598
M. Pontgravé, Fur trade at Tadousac	1599
M. de Monts — Port Royal founded	1604
Quebec founded	1608
Argall destroys Port Royal	1614
Grant to Sir William Alexander (Nova Scotia) . . .	1621
Sir David Kirk takes Acadie and Quebec	1628-29
Death of Champlain	1635
Montreal founded	1642
Destruction of Jesuit Missions in Huron country, .	1648-49
Colonel Sedgwick takes possession of Acadie	1655

FRENCH PERIOD (CONTINUED).

TIME OF ROYAL GOVERNMENT, 1663-1760. 97 YEARS.

Leading Features. — Explorations and extension of territory. Rivalries of the fur trade. Hostile movements of the Iroquois. War with the English colonies. Bankruptcy and conquest.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SOVEREIGN COUNCIL.

54. THE promise of better days for Canada came in 1663. A regular government was then established, — the Sovereign Council, composed of the Governor-General (who had the power of making peace and war, and took an active part in the government of the country), of the Bishop (who had jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters), and the Intendant (an officer of great authority, who had direct supervision over all matters relating to the administration of justice, police, finance, and marine); and these three had each power to appoint four councillors. This sovereign council was constituted a supreme court to try 1663 civil and criminal cases. Justice was administered according to the laws of France and the custom of Paris, — a body of unwritten laws established by long usage. These laws were from time to time modified by ordinances of the king, which became the chief code by which the colony was governed. Under this form of government the people had no voice in the direction of affairs.

55. When the "New Company" surrendered its charter (1663), a monopoly of the territory and trade of all the colonies of France was granted to the "West India Company," on condition of sending out settlers and maintain-

ing priests. Lands were granted by the company in extensive blocks to gentlemen, officers of the army, and communities, on condition of paying fealty and homage to the king, — a ceremony which was annually performed in the Castle of St. Louis, Quebec. The holders of these blocks were the seigneurs, and they exercised legal jurisdiction in their domain, except in cases of treason and murder. The seigneurs divided their blocks into lots, which were granted in villenage to censitaires, who paid a small annual rent in money and some article of provision; who ground their wheat at the seigneur's mill, paying him a fourteenth of the produce; gave him a tith^e of fish caught; made and repaired roads and bridges; and did compulsory military service. All this was according to the feudal system which then prevailed in France.

56. The "West India Company" did no better than the "New Company," and their charter was rescinded when ten of its fifty years' monopoly had run, and the vast domain ceded to it came into direct possession of the crown. The people of the colony, who were all interested in the fur trade, raised such a clamor against monopoly that they were granted freedom to import their own goods and buy the peltry from the Indians, on condition of paying a certain proportion of beaver skins and buffalo robes to the government's officer — The Farmer General.

57. In the year 1663 the English supplanted the Dutch on Long Island and the Hudson, and New Amsterdam became New York. The English merchants of New York then strove hard to draw the fur trade that passed down the St. Lawrence to the Hudson. Their government formed an alliance with the Iroquois, who induced the tribes dwelling around the Great Lakes to sell their peltry to the English, and made war upon them if they would not. The French were afraid that they would lose

the trade, and tried hard to win the friendship of these fierce and astute warriors. In short, the rivalries and jealousies created by the fur trade were a principal cause of the "little wars" that desolated Canada and the frontiers of the New England settlements, and that led to the long conflict between the English and French, which resulted in the conquest of Canada in 1760.

58. The Jesuit Fathers had ruled Canada since the days of Montmagny, and they roused a party against them by the rigidity of their system. Under the new *régime* they still hoped to maintain predominance of power; but M. de Mesy set his face against them and gave support to the opposition. He and his old friend Bishop Laval had violent quarrels in council, and they became so irreconcilable that the Bishop memorialized the king to discharge him from office. At this time Marquis de Tracy came to America as viceroy to the king, with plenary power to settle all disorders in the French colonies in America. De Mesy's case would have been submitted to him had not that irascible individual died, in the meantime, at peace with the bishop.

59. With De Tracy came M. de Courcelles, De Mesy's successor, and the Carignan regiment, and a whole colony of honest and industrious Normandy and Picardy peasants, their families and horses, oxen and sheep. Their coming was a great event for the colony, and inspired confidence. The Iroquois heard of the splendid regiment which had come out to fight them, and all the Five Nations, save the haughty Mohawks, sent deputies to make peace. On his first arriving, the viceroy, a man well stricken in years, but full of energy, gave orders for the erection of three forts at the mouth of the Richelieu River, and late in autumn invaded the country of the defiant Mohawks. The expedition, numbering 1,300 men, was commanded by himself in person; but as he was too feeble to march,

he was borne in an easy-chair, surrounded by a body guard in splendid uniforms, and attended by pages in gorgeous liveries. His trumpets awakened echoes in the hills and woods. But the march was long and laborious, and, provisions giving out, the soldiers plucked the green chestnuts from the trees. When he reached the *bourgade*, it was found deserted of all but a few women and old men. The *bourgade* was burned by his orders, and the pits where the Mohawks had stored an immense quantity of corn were rifled; and then, winter approaching, the expedition returned to Quebec. The work was not quarter done, but this punishment made a salutary impression on the Iroquois, and gave Canada a breathing-time of peace.

60. M. Talon, the Intendant, a man of ability, zeal, integrity, and enlightened aims, had now the opportunity to carry out his views for the advancement of the colony. He had several objects in view. First, to add to the permanent strength of Canada by settling in it an industrious agricultural population. To show the peasants the best way to settle in the wilderness, he obtained a grant of land near Quebec, had it cleared, and houses and barns erected. In this way were formed the villages of Louisburg and Charlesbourg. When the people were pretty comfortably settled he set them to clear adjacent lots for the reception of coming colonists. The disbanded soldiers of the Carignan regiment were settled on the frontier to form a barrier against the Iroquois — an object they imperfectly carried out. Secondly, to develop the resources of the country, so as to create an external commerce with other French colonies. Little or nothing was done in this direction. An expert mineralogist was sent to the Three Rivers district to examine its mineral riches, and he reported that there was abundance of iron ore of fine quality; but nothing to turn the discovery to account was done for many years. Thirdly, to extend the fur trade and give the people

an interest in it. It was through Talon's influence that the people, as already stated, were granted freedom to import their own goods and buy the peltry from the Indians on certain conditions. Fourthly, to bring under the authority of the Crown of France the northern and western regions of the continent. Nicholas Perrot, an experienced traveller, was dispatched to the mission at Ste. Marie, at the strait between lakes Superior and Huron, which, several years before, along with the mission at Michillimackinac, had been established by Father Allouez. There he called a general assembly of delegates from the tribes dwelling around the Great Lakes, and there M. Lousson, the royal commissioner, made them to understand that he wished to place their country under the protection of the French king. The delegates, well instructed by the Fathers, shouted "Vive le Roi," and, with the planting of a cedar cross, the ceremony of taking possession of the vast domain was completed.

61. At Ste. Marie, Perrot heard of the great river, the Mississippi. Talon, when informed of it, at once discerned the importance of ascertaining its outlet. Its discovery was intrusted to Father Marquette, and Joliette, a merchant. They, after infinite toil, launched their canoe on the main stream of the Father of Waters on the 14th of June, 1673, and made a prosperous voyage, viewing on the way a magnificent country of meadow, forest, and prairies—the feeding-ground of countless herds of buffaloes, to the mouth of its tributary, the Arkansas. There the Indians were hostile, and they returned. Nine years later a young, daring, intelligent adventurer, Robert la Salle, reached the outlet of the Mississippi, in the Gulf of Mexico. This La Salle was a man of extraordinary enterprise. By erecting forts at Cataracoui (the site of the modern Kingston), at Niagara, at Detroit, Michillimackinac, Ste. Marie, Chi-

cago, St. Joseph, Crèvecoeur on the Illinois, he secured the commerce of the west and the Great Lakes, and excited the hatred of the merchants of Montreal and Quebec. He, with Father Hennepin, sailed in the first ship that ever ploughed the waters of the lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan — the "Griffin" — that was wrecked on its return voyage.

62. The Hudson Bay Territory attracted Talon's attention. Both English and French claimed it, and at this time (1671) the English had forts at the mouth of rivers Rupert, Moose, and Albany. The year before, Charles II. granted a charter to the **Hudson Bay Company**. Following Talon's instructions, Father Albanel ascended the Saguenay to its source, and then explored Lake Mistissin, and descended the river Rupert. On a point of land near its mouth, in presence of delegates of numerous tribes, the Father took formal possession of the territory. Several years afterwards the "**Company of the North**" was formed in Canada; they established Fort Thérèse. Until the territory became the sole possession of the English crown (1713) there was perpetual rivalry and war between the English and French fur traders.

63. The French also, at this time, established themselves more firmly in **Newfoundland** than they hitherto had done. A lieutenant-governor was placed in command of Plaisance (Placentia) on the southern coast, which was their only post.

CHAPTER VII.

CANADA'S TIME OF TRIAL.

64. THE promise of better days for Canada was hardly fulfilled. M. de Courcelles had a difficult task to preserve peace, but he was vigilant and alert, and spared himself

no labor in order to do so. There were some bad characters among the French military, and they made drunk, robbed and murdered several Indians. Only the prompt and public execution of the murderers before delegates of the tribes of the murdered prevented a rising. Then the Iroquois showed signs of warlike restlessness. To propitiate them he invited their chiefs to meet him at *Cataraconi* (Kingston), to smoke the pipe of peace. He flattered and gave them presents, and told them that he intended to build a fort there (the fort which La Salle afterwards rebuilt on an extended scale, and which was called Fort Frontenac), in order that they might come and trade more conveniently with their friends, the French. He really meant the fort to be a menace and a protection against their incursions, but they professed themselves pleased, though probably the astute warriors saw through his design.

65. His successor was *Count Frontenac*, a man of high birth and imperious manners. He was the most famous, if not the best, of the governors-general under the French régime. He was loved by the poor *habitans* for his kindness, but detested by almost every one in any position who came in contact with him. His aim was to concentrate all the powers of the council in himself, and he quarrelled with the Intendant, Bishop, and Jesuit Fathers. The wise Talon could not get on with him at all, and it was a bad day for Canada when he left it. Unfortunately, he had found that neither governor-general nor bishop would go heartily with him in promoting the internal improvement of the colony. He was opposed to the policy of the Jesuits, who sought to maintain predominance in the colony, and he obtained an edict from Louis XIV. re-establishing the Recollets. Frontenac favored these priests also; supported the liquor traffic against the remonstrances of the "Fathers;" and roused scandalous scenes

in council by the impetuosity of his temper. Duchesneau, Talon's successor, felt the weight of his wrath, but he would not give in to him. Yet Frontenac had liberal aims; he desired to give the people some voice in the direction of affairs. He was the patron of La Salle. He had proved himself a good soldier, whose spirit rose in times of difficulty. It was a pity he could not restrain his temper, for times of difficulty were coming on Canada; but he was recalled in temporary disgrace. **M. La Barre**, who relieved him, was a brave old soldier, but in no way fitted for his position. **The colony was in an unquiet state.** Fearing an eruption of the barbarians he called a council of notables, and, following their advice, made an urgent appeal to the king for a force of soldiers and laborers; but the force sent was inadequate. It was evident to all that Canada could not exist unless the Iroquois were crushed. He had no power to do that. He had an enemy in bluff **Colonel Dongan, Governor of New York**, who persistently, though repeatedly instructed by the home government to preserve neutrality, incited the Iroquois to make war upon the French, and to divert the fur trade from the St. Lawrence to the Hudson. He, no doubt, thought he was doing his duty by his State. Not having force sufficient to humble the Five Nations, La Barre made overtures of peace to four of them. He imagined that he would be able to keep them quiet, so as to allow him to crush the Senecas, the most obnoxious of all. Vain hope! for they only laughed at him and made common cause with their brothers. He, with nine hundred men, set out to invade the country of the Senecas, but lingered so long on the way that provisions gave out, and his force nearly died of hunger where they camped by a cove then named "**The Bay of Famine.**" He could not fight, so he parleyed. He spoke proudly to the delegates of the Senecas, but his weakness was so evident that they openly scorned him.

However, a hollow peace was patched up. Had the Five Nations united and attacked the French then, they might have driven them from Canada, but at that particular time they were offended with Dongan, who had too plainly let them see that he considered them English subjects; and a Jesuit missionary told them that if they drove the French from Canada they would no longer be a powerful people, as the English would be sole masters.

66. Marquis de Denonville succeeded La Barre. He was instructed to win over the Iroquois, and make Frenchmen of them. He soon saw that that was perfectly impossible; but he was pained to see how easily Frenchmen became Indians, and took to the woods and wigwams, as the class called *Coueurs des Bois*, "runners of the woods," did, many of whom injured the colony by their wild and vagabond conduct. He made preparations to crush the Senecas, and, in the meantime, did a cruel, senseless act. Without informing them of his purpose, he required of the missionaries to invite some of the chief men of the Iroquois to visit him. When the chiefs were in his power he had them manacled and hurried on board of ships and conveyed to France, there to man the king's galleys. Before this perfidious act became known, he, with a large
1687 force, invaded the Senecas' country, burnt their *bourogade* and their corn, killed their hogs, and then marched west to the Niagara and caused a fort to be built.

67. Fiercely did the Iroquois resent the chastisement inflicted on the Senecas. Like ravening wolves they spread themselves over the settlements. The *habitans* in terror left their houses and fields, and fled with their movables and cattle to the fortified enclosures of the seigneuries. This same summer the small-pox made great ravages among the French families and the domiciled Indians; and, altogether it was as unfortunate a summer as the people of Canada had yet seen.

68. It was a terrible time certainly, but there was little change in its incidents. It is useless to recount the freaks of capricious savages who were swayed by the counsel last heard. A truce was at length agreed to, and the treaty of peace was to include all the Iroquois and the Indian tribes friendly to the French. This proposal displeased the friendly Indians and Governor Dongan. An old Huron chief, **Kondiaronk**, or "**the Rat**," carried out a deep scheme, the result of which was that he caused an Iroquois peace ambassador, whom he had captured, to be executed as a prisoner taken in battle, and then released an Iroquois captive, and told him to fly and spread the news among the cantons, while Dongan insinuated in the ears of some of the Iroquois chiefs that the French were meditating treachery. Between them they effectually "**killed the peace**." Denonville was in Montreal on the 25th of August, impatiently waiting for the coming of the peace delegates to sign the treaty, when a band of twelve hundred Iroquois warriors burst on the neighborhood of **Lachine**, and massacred men, women, and children. The red demons spread themselves over the country, and advanced within a league of Montreal, burning houses and barns, wasting the fields, slaying the people, and perpetrating the most abominable and appalling cruelties. They did not quit the island of Montreal until the middle of October. This dreadful catastrophe paralyzed Denonville, and it was with a feeling of infinite relief and thankfulness that he handed over the command of the distracted colony to Count Frontenac.

CHAPTER VIII.

BEGINNING OF WAR BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

69. In 1689 England and France were at war in Europe and America. Neither King William nor Louis XIV. had soldiers to spare to fight the battles of their colonial subjects, so these were left to shift for themselves. The leading men in Canada and the English colonies were now convinced that the presence of English and French on the American continent was "incompatible with peace," but it took sixty years of fighting to decide the question who should be master of it.

70. Count Frontenac had now an opportunity to display his better qualities. The fact that he had been appointed to a second term of the governor-generalship showed that confidence was placed in him. The work before him was to give security to the colony and to redeem the honor of the French arms. Canada, assuredly, after the massacre of Lachine, was in a fearful condition — on the point of collapse. The people of the towns and settlements of the St. Lawrence were almost paralyzed by terror; the forts west of Lake St. Louis, Cataracoui and Niagara, were destroyed or abandoned; the tribes once friendly to the French now scorned them and sought the friendship of the Iroquois. But the situation did not frighten the old Count, and he showed his wilful and imperious temper. The king commanded him to remain on the defensive, and to gather the colonists together in contiguous settlements. He did not obey the royal mandates; in the circumstances in which he and the colony were placed, probably he could not. He acted most vigorously, and took the offensive. One of his first cares was to win again the friendship of the tribes of the west, and a lucky incident aided him.

He sent a grand convoy with presents, to Michillimackinac. It was attacked by a party of Iroquois, which was defeated. He caused one of the prisoners to be delivered into the cruel hands of the Ottawas, and this strange act, together with the defeat, mightily pleased all the western Indians and revived their respect for French prowess. Thenceforth they could not do enough for Ononthio, as they always called the governor-general, and as a token of their friendship sent Frontenac bales of beaver-skins valued at one hundred thousand crowns. Count Frontenac was not, it may be granted, at heart a cruel man, but nothing could be more cruel than the system of little war ("petite guerre") he waged against the English colonies. 1690 His Indian allies committed terrible cruelties, for which he and the members of the *noblesse*, who led them, were held responsible. From Montreal, Three Rivers, and Quebec, war parties were sent out to make havoc in the colony of New York and in the New England settlements. Schenectady was destroyed by a murderous midnight raid; the village of Salmon Falls, in the eastern border of New Hampshire, and the settlement at Casco Bay were plundered, burned, and many of their inhabitants given over to the Indians to be tortured. These ruthless acts exasperated and roused the governments of the English colonies, and they resolved to conquer Acadie and Canada.

71. Acadie, in the twenty years that had passed away, after it had been restored to France, had made very little progress. Intendant Meules, in the time of La Barre, visited it, and drew up a report of its condition and resources. He was of opinion that it was capable of being made a most valuable colony, but some of its chief sources of wealth had been quite neglected. Its people devoted themselves to the fur trade, they cultivated the marshlands, and easily raised corn, hay, cattle, but they neglected the uplands. The fisheries on the coasts were in the hands

of the people of Massachusetts. An endeavor was made to turn its resources to better account, and a M. Bergier formed a company to prosecute the shore fisheries and to cultivate the uplands. His principal station was at Chedabucto. In 1680 Acadie was subordinate to the government of Canada, and Frontenac appointed its first governor, M. Chambly. In 1690 its population was about nine hundred, and its capital, Port Royal, was a small village with an insignificant, ill-provided fort which had not a cannon placed in its batteries.

72. One early May day a fleet of eight small vessels which bore eight hundred men sailed into the basin of Port Royal. The commander of this expedition was the stout New England captain, Sir William Phips. The governor, De Menneval, could do nothing but surrender, but he put on an air as if he yielded rather from a desire to avoid bloodshed than from compulsion. Phips, when he saw how weak the fort, how few its defenders, was angry, and repented that he had consented to allow the governor and his garrison to march out of the fort with their arms, and colors flying, and drums beating, with their effects and their liberty. He eagerly seized a pretext to break his word. Some French soldiers broke into the government store and raised a riot. He held that the terms of capitulation had been broken, and caused Menneval and his men to be conveyed prisoners to Boston, and gave over Port Royal to be plundered by the New England soldiery.

73. Count Frontenac heard of the capture of Port Royal, and that an expedition against Quebec was in preparation at Boston. He also heard that Colonel Winthrop with eight hundred New York volunteers was marching from Albany to attack Montreal. He gathered his forces and stood prepared about the mouth of the Richelieu River to repel the invaders. But Winthrop's force got no further than Lake George; sickness attacked it, and the Iroquois, who

had promised great assistance, failed to keep their word. Hardly was Frontenac assured that Montreal was safe, when he heard that an English fleet was ascending the St. Lawrence. He hastened to Quebec, which was being strengthened, and with his own eye saw to its defences, and not a moment too soon. Sir William Phips' sail, numbering thirty-five vessels, large and small, and bearing two thousand men, appeared in sight. From his place of anchorage off Point Levi, Phips sent an officer into Quebec to demand its instant surrender. He was conducted blindfold through the town, and into the chamber in the Castle of St. Louis, where Frontenac and the members of the council were seated. He gave his message brusquely, and clapped his watch upon the council table to mark the time he would wait for an answer. The old Count exploded in anger, and spoke contemptuously of Sir William, saying that he was a traitor to his true king (James II.), and a dishonored soldier, who had broken his plighted word, and concluded by declaring that he would give his answer by the cannon's mouth.

74. The English General found that he had quite underestimated the difficulties which he had to encounter. His guns made no impression on the fortress, while the cannon of the fortress so shattered his ships that their captains were glad to take them out of fire. He essayed to attack Quebec on the land side, but his soldiers found the greatest difficulty in hauling their cannon over the miry ground on the Beauport shore, and their temper was sorely tried, as the Canadian militia kept blazing away at them from behind bushes, trees, boulders, fences, and hedges, and they could return no effective fire. The St. Charles flowed between them and the town, and on its right bank Frontenac and the regular soldiers stood ready to give them a warm reception should they venture to cross it. They were much discouraged. On the second night of their encampment they

were alarmed at the noise of a great commotion in Quebec, and the loud ringing of the great Cathedral bell, and, leaving cannon and ammunition behind, they fled to their boats. Phips sailed away, and bore the report of his defeat to Boston, whose good people were prepared to hear quite other news.

75. The people of Canada were very joyful over their deliverance. A medal was struck with this inscription (in Latin): "**France victorious in the New World; Quebec delivered,**" A. D. 1690. And a small chapel was erected in the lower town, and dedicated to "**Our Lady of Victory.**"

CHAPTER IX.

NASHWAAK FORT.

76. THE further events of the war did not touch Canada. Frontenac took the opportunity to give the Iroquois a lesson. He would rather have had these warlike savages for friends than foes, and he had tried his great powers of persuasion to conciliate some of their chiefs, but without avail. They were bound to the English by the tie of self-interest, if not of liking. At the head of a large number of regulars, militia, and Indians, he invaded and laid waste the canton of the Onondagas. When urged to make an end of the work and destroy the other cantons, he refused. Had he been moved by a touch of compassion, his refusal was not discreditable. But, if, as it was said, he refused out of vainglory, because he thought that, if the Iroquois were completely crushed, the king would withdraw the regular troops, then, it must be said, he was extremely selfish. It is no wonder, what with wars with the Iroquois, and constant troubles with the Indians in the west, fomented by the vagabond "runners of the woods," that

the minister of France thought Canada rather a burden than an acquisition. It never had been (and never was under the French *régime*), a self-supporting colony. He counselled Frontenac, and his counsel was enforced by royal edicts, to command the people to abandon the fur trade, which was the chief cause of all the trouble, and all stations west of Montreal, and to gather in contiguous settlements, and apply themselves to agriculture. But Frontenac, as usual, disregarded the counsel, and the edicts were not obeyed.

77. After the capture of Port Royal by Phips, the government of Massachusetts was not able to hold the country, and Acadie was allowed to pass into the hands of the French again. Frontenac appointed M. Villebon governor. He, thinking Port Royal too exposed, established himself in the fort on the Nachouac (Nashwaak), a tributary of the St. John. Here he was safe, at least from sudden attack, and here assembled for war consultation, for the feast and dance, the Oupack Melicetes from Grand Lake, the warriors of Medoctec, Madawaska, Kennebec, and Penobscot. Villebon was in constant communication with M. d'Iberville, a famous Canadian sea captain (who during the war gained some signal advantages over the English in Hudson Bay and Newfoundland), and together they arranged an attack on Fort William Henry, on the Pemaquid, and destroyed it. The government of Massachusetts, in revenge, sent a noted partisan and surly old fellow, Ben Church, with a flotilla of armed whale-boats, to ravage the Acadian coasts from Passamaquoddy to Beaubasin, and he did the people all the injury he could. 1696

78. Church was not given the command of the expedition against the fort on the Nashwaak (though he was present), which may partly account for its want of success. Villebon, knowing he was hated for the part he had taken in destroying Fort William Henry, and for the countenance

and shelter he had given to Baptiste, a noted privateer who had done much damage to New England shipping, prepared to make a vigorous defence, and was aided by the warlike priest, Father Simon, of the Medoctec, and his Indians. Early on the 19th of October, from the fort, the red-cross flag flying from topmast was descried above the bend of the St. John River.

79. The New Englanders anchored their vessels behind a sheltered point of the left bank, and advanced cheering through the woods, and were replied to by counter-cheers from the French. When within range of the fort, which stood on a point of land on the right bank of the Nashwaak, they **hastily threw up a battery and placed their cannon.** Their fire made no impression on the fort through the day; when the darkness came, they were compelled to shiver through the chill, bitter night without fire or shelter. In the morning, when the French opened with cannon and musketry, two of their cannon were disabled, and thirty of their men killed or wounded. The shades of another evening fell, and thoroughly discouraged, and having no mind for another cold bivouac, they dragged their solitary cannon from their battery, and retreated to the point where the vessels were anchored, lighted the camp fires, and next morning spread canvas for the downward sail.

80. The war came to an end by the **Peace of Ryswick**, September 20, and England and France mutually restored to each other all their possessions in North America which had changed hands during the war. The following year old Count Frontenac died, imperious and wilful to the last. In the time of his successor, M. de Callières, the Iroquois and the tribes of the west were at peace. But the peace was not of much longer duration than the peace between England and France. These countries now took opposite sides in what is known as the War of

the Spanish Succession; when again their colonies were embroiled. Callières died before hostilities commenced, and the Marquis de Vaudreuil took his place. 1702

CHAPTER X.

RENEWAL OF WAR.

81. **The French and the English** had carried through eight years of fighting, and they had **accomplished nothing**, — yea, worse than nothing. And now they were going to do all the miserable bloody work over again. The history of the next ten years reads almost like a repetition of the events of the former war. From the close of that war there had been no real peace between Acadie and New England, and at the outbreak of the new war the New England government was roused and in angry mood, eager to punish the French for encroachments on their soil, and for a treacherous massacre of the people of Deerfield, Mass. **Old Ben Church** was sent out again with his well-manned whale-boats to ravage the Acadian coasts, and thoroughly he did his work. In the long course of this guerilla warfare, Port Royal was twice unsuccessfully assailed. Colonel March, who led the first attack, was afraid to carry the report of his failure to Boston and face the wrath of the citizens, so confident had they been of success. **Marquis de Vaudreuil**, to avenge the devastation in the settlements of Acadie, sent out parties to wage cruel "little war" on the border settlements of New England. The demoniac deeds done aroused the New Englanders to a higher pitch of fury. Two famous captains, **Vetch** and **Nicolson**, planned a campaign to conquer Canada. **Vaudreuil**, to take the wind out of their sails, made ready to attack New York, but something occurred to frustrate

his design. During this war there was always some accident, misunderstanding, carelessness, or treachery happening to spoil the best-laid schemes. Colonel Nicolson, with a large volunteer force, advanced to attack Montreal from Albany, but got no further than the southern extremity of Lake Champlain. His slippery allies, the Iroquois, played him false, and here he heard news which compelled him to return. The English fleet, which should have co-operated with him, had been sent to Lisbon instead of Quebec. But this disappointment was far from discouraging the New England governments. Nicolson went to England, and obtained assistance from Queen Anne herself to raise four regiments, and the promise of a fleet from the English government. The ships, however, were so long in being put in readiness that the season was too advanced for the fleet to sail to Quebec. So Nicolson with his force sailed for Port Royal. The fort there was a mere earthwork, and it was weakly garrisoned and badly equipped. The people of the village and surrounding settlements were pining with want, owing to the failure of two harvests. Subercase, the governor, when thirty-five New England vessels, great and small, sailed into the basin, felt like a rat caught in a trap. But the old farce was played over again. He assumed a bold tone in his communications with Nicolson, held out against unconditional surrender, and was granted honorable terms, which the English general honorably kept, though he had as much cause to feel sore at being duped as ever

1710 Phips had. The New England governments resolved never again to give up Acadie. It became Nova Scotia, and Port Royal was named Annapolis Royal, in honor of Queen Anne. Col. Nicolson was elated by this success, and hurried over to England. He roused the sympathy and gained the assistance of the Tory government for an attack on Canada. Seven of the Duke of Marlborough's finest

regiments were detailed to form part of the military expedition, and the command was given to General Sir John Hill. The fleet, composed of fifteen war-ships and forty transports, was commanded by Sir Hoveden Walker. Such confidence was felt in the success of the enterprise that a party of Scotch settlers formed part of the expedition.

82. Again Nicolson and his New York volunteers advanced from Albany to attack Montreal; again he stopped short before he had made much headway; again bad news compelled him to retrace his steps. He heard then that the great English fleet had sailed too close to the northern shore of the St. Lawrence, and that eight of the large ships had been shattered to pieces among the Egg Islands, and that the coasts were strewn with dead bodies and broken cargo. The people of Quebec were very confident and joyful after these repeated deliverances. A special providence appeared to them to watch over the colony. If the New Englanders, as was rumored in Quebec, prepared another expedition for the following year, they must have thought better of it, for the expedition never sailed. The war ended the year after. By the Treaty of Utrecht, April 11, 1713, Louis XIV. ceded to the British crown Acadie, Hudson Bay Territory, Newfoundland, reserving to the French fishermen the right to cure their fish on the coasts from Bonavista to Cape Rich. He retained Cape Breton, Island of St. John, and the islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

CHAPTER XI.

CANADA AT PEACE.

83. CANADA now, after its many trials and struggles, entered on a period of peace. Still, in the west, for some time after the treaty, the French had great trouble with a

few of the tribes, stirred up by the fur traders of New York, and great difficulty in holding their important fort at Detroit, which gave them command of the commerce of the Great Lakes, and enabled them to hold the routes to the Mississippi and their new province, Louisiana. The spirit of rivalry and jealousy between the French and English was in no way changed on account of the peace. In the east, for several years after the peace, there was an Indian war in the country between the Penobscot and Kennebec. The Abenakis, friendly to the French, committed fiendish cruelties among the settlements of the pushing New Englanders, and were incited thereto, there is little doubt, by the authorities of Quebec, and were certainly encouraged by a **Father Rasles**, who had a mission station at **Norridgewalk**, whose influence over them was great. The government of Massachusetts waged a retaliatory war, and it was not until the station was destroyed and the Father slain that the Indians made overtures of peace. And then M. de Vaudreuil raised difficulties to a treaty being made, though it was concluded in 1725.

84. M. de Vaudreuil and his successors had a **national policy** in view, to extend the dominion of France over the continent, and to keep the English, if possible, cooped up behind the Alleghany Mountains. The French had now begun to colonize their great province of **Louisiana**, at the mouth of the Mississippi, and in 1718 they founded the city of New Orleans. As a barrier to the advancing English, they erected a fort on the Niagara, and they tried hard to win the friendship of the "Five," or rather "Six," Nations, as they were now called (owing to the entrance of the Tuscaroras into the confederacy), and they partly succeeded. But the English built a fort at the mouth of the **Oswego**, which placed them in a better position than ever to intercept the fur trade of the west. Several years later the French erected the fort of **Crown**

Point, at the foot of the "narrows," between Lakes Champlain and George.

85. Canada, with its vast territory and absolute government, was externally more imposing than New England and New York, with their separate governments. Quebec, with its miniature court and its episcopate, was a much gayer and more pretentious place than either Boston or New York. But in all that constitutes the strength of a nation, the English colonies were far ahead of Canada. Their population in 1717 was four or five times greater than that of Canada, which was then estimated at 26,500; their fighting force was as 150,000 to 4,444. With the English, agriculture was the main occupation; with the French, the fur trade, which did not enrich and strengthen the country as the clearing of the land and the cultivation of the soil did. And the English colonies had established a considerable commerce with England and foreign countries, while the French had no commerce to speak of. In the time of peace, when the Messieurs Raudot, father and son, were Intendants, efforts were made to improve the internal condition of Canada. They did much to break the *habitans* of the bad habit of going to law with each other on the slightest provocation and for the merest trifles, which wasted their property and time. They encouraged them to grow flax and hemp, and manufacture coarse linen and woollen fabrics, to build war and merchant vessels, to send lumber and other native produce to France and the West Indies, and to prosecute the shore fisheries of the St. Lawrence. But the fur trade remained the chief resource of the colony.

86. M. de Vaudrenil, the most beloved of all the governors-general under the French *régime*, died in 1725, and he was succeeded by the Marquis de Beauharnois.

CHAPTER XII.

LOUISBURG.

87. Louis XIV., it has been stated, retained Cape Breton, "the Royal Island." In it were settled the French of Placentia, Newfoundland, and the British government contemplated the removal of the Acadians in Nova Scotia to it. It is a pity that the plan was not carried out at once — it would have made unnecessary, fifty years later, their forcible expulsion. The Acadians, from the Basin of Annapolis to Chignecto Bay, were rooted to their beloved marshes, fields, and orchards, and the body of them would, no doubt, gladly have remained neutral in the wars between French and English, had they been left alone. But the authorities of Quebec, who regretted the cession of Acadie to the English, and hoped still to regain it, through their priests, kept the simple people bound to France, and determined not to take an unconditional oath of allegiance to the English king. They would not consent to fight for George against Louis.

88. In the Royal Island, on a little promontory that jutted out between "the English harbor" and Gabarus Bay, a fortified town was built and named Louisburg. An enormous sum was spent in its erection, and it was thought to be the strongest place in America. Lofty walls, surmounted by towers, protected it on the land side; seaward, a little rocky islet battery lay in the mouth of the harbor; and on the east of it, at Lighthouse Point, and the northeast, there were strong batteries. Louisburg now became a place of great note: swift was its rise; short but eventful its history. It was the principal naval station of France in America, and the resort and refuge of her fishermen; it was a centre of trade between Canada and France and her colonies, and with old and New Eng-

land. To the Acadians it was the visible sign of the power of France in America, and to it they took and sold their surplus corn and cattle, and they persisted in carrying on the traffic against the orders of their English governors.

89. For several years the English in Nova Scotia were but settlers amid a foreign population and hostile Indians. Their precarious position was shown when a time of armed strife came again in 1744, when France and England took opposite sides in the war of the Austrian Succession. The events of that war did not affect Canada. **Louisburg** then became a danger to Nova Scotia and a menace to the English colonies. Its governor planned expeditions to destroy the principal English posts in 1744 the peninsula, and from its harbor there went forth privateers to prey on the merchant vessels of New England. A Captain du Vivier with nine hundred men, burnt Canso, and afterwards, from Chignecto, made an inland march to Annapolis, and, along with the hostile Micmacs, invested it. The place was reduced to extremities, and it was only saved by the resolution of the stout and astute governor, Paul Mascarene.

90. The destruction of their shipping and the interruption of their commerce made the people of Massachusetts very angry, and they eagerly backed up their bold governor, William Shirley, in his resolution to attempt the capture of the great French fortress. A force of four thousand, chiefly undisciplined artisans and laborers, was raised, and the command given to a militia colonel, **William Pepperell**. The British government ordered Commodore Warren, on the Newfoundland station, to co-operate with him. The expedition sailed on a Sunday in April. If Pepperell hoped to take Louisburg by surprise, he was disappointed, for a merchant vessel brought Du-

chambon, its governor, the news; and the ice in the harbor and the state of the sea prevented immediate operations. The appearance of the English fleet produced the wildest commotion among its people, but hasty preparations were made for a vigorous defence.

91. The work cut out for the audacious New Englanders was arduous and difficult enough. But through the raw and gloomy weather, through discomforts, toilsome labors, and dangers manifold, they preserved a rollicking good humor. The heavy siege guns were landed; over the miry marsh, on sleds, through the darkness of night, they were hauled towards the ramparts on the land side; trenches were dug, batteries erected, and fire opened. One party marched northeast through the woods, seized and fired a store filled with turpentine, brandy, and tar, and the thick, stifling smoke drove out the defenders of the Royal Battery. Then the New Englanders rushed in, drilled out the spiked touch-holes of its cannon, and turned their fire on the town. Another party dragged cannon up to the lighthouse height on the west of the harbor, and silenced the guns of the rocky Islet Battery. Then Commodore Warren put into the harbor to bombard the town. Louisburg was thus circled by fire, and the governor was forced to surrender it June 17, forty days or more after the siege had commenced. The garrison were allowed to march out of it with drums beating and colors flying, which was, perhaps, balm to their wounded pride, and they, with the inhabitants, 4,130 persons, were afterward removed to France.

92. Pepperell and Warren had honors bestowed on them, and the brave New England militia prize-money and rum, — too much rum, for it proved ten times more deadly to them than the fire of the French. Bold Governor Shirley was mightily elated, as well he might be, by the capture of Louisburg, and at every opportunity exclaimed, “Can-

ada must be destroyed." But the triumph was she lived. The Bostonians flocked to the churches to pray when they heard that the French king, incensed at the loss of his fortress, had sent out a great fleet and force to conquer Nova Scotia and to burn their city. Never had a mightier fleet sailed from the ports of France than that which sailed under the command of the **Duc d'Anville**, and never a more unlucky one. The king, in his wrath and pride, could not guard against the vigilance of the foe or command the elements. Off Brest, two of his great ships were captured by the English, and a furious storm dispersed the rest; so that when the commander in the flagship, with a consort, entered the place of rendezvous, Chebucto (Halifax) harbor, he found only one ship. The intense mortification he felt killed him—it was said that he poisoned himself. On the same day that he died, **D'Estournelle**, the rear-admiral, sailed into the harbor with three ships. He strongly urged the abandonment of the enterprise, but the majority of the officers were against him. The opposition excited him to the pitch of madness, and, when he entered his cabin, he transfixed himself with his sword. On his death **M. de la Jonquiere** (who had come out to succeed Beauharnois as governor-general), took command, and with thirty vessels, large and small, sailed for Annapolis to co-operate with a land force sent from Quebec for the capture of that place. **But ill-luck followed.** A storm arose when the fleet was off Cape Sable, and he held on for France. Determined not to be conquered by the foe or the elements, the King of France sent out another great fleet; but unluckily, off Cape Finisterre, **M. le George** encountered Admiral Anson, and, after a hot engagement, hauled down his flag. **M. de la Jonquiere** was on board one of the captured ships and was taken to England.

93. The Bostonians held thanksgiving for their extra-

ordinary deliverances from danger. Yet, when peace was made soon after, at Aix la Chapelle (October 18, 1748), they did not feel so very thankful, for then England handed Louisburg back to France in exchange for Madras. And they were not grateful when the British government reimbursed them for the money they had spent in taking it, for they were thrown back where they were before its capture, and they knew that the work would have to be done over again.

CHAPTER XIII.

HALIFAX FOUNDED.

94. THE peace was merely a truce. There could be no permanent peace until the question, who should be masters of the continent, was decided. Since 1713
1749 Canada had doubled its population, and made some progress, but the English colonies had increased and prospered in a very much greater degree. Their population was now 1,200,000, that of Canada 60,000, and their material resources were incomparably greater. Yet at Quebec they dreamed that they could confine the pushing and energetic pioneers of the English race to the strip of country east of the Alleghanies, while the French remained undisputed masters of the rest of the continent, south to the Gulf of Mexico, west to the Pacific Ocean. The policy of the governor-general who succeeded Beauharnois, in place of De la Jonquière, who was a captive in England, was to uphold the vast territorial pretensions of France. This Count de la Galissonnière sent an officer, with a party of soldiers, to traverse the country from Detroit to the Alleghanies, and deposit leaden plates, on which the royal arms were engraved, beneath certain marked trees. This proceeding alarmed the Indian tribes, and

raised a ferment among the English colonies, and the feeling of jealousy rose to rage when they received formal notification that all English merchants found trading west of the Alleghanies would be seized and their goods confiscated. The English also laid claim to right of possession of the valley of the Ohio, and it became known as "the debatable territory." The right of France to the territory north of the Bay of Fundy (now New Brunswick) was also asserted, and French officers held posts on the St. John and at Chignecto. M. de la Jonquiere, a brave old sea officer, was released from captivity, and assumed the governor-generalship. Under his rule and that of the Intendant Bigot the people of Canada groaned; and they appealed to the king for relief. The governor-general made great profits by the fur trade and liquor traffic, but he was a miser and hoarded them up, whereas the Intendant was a very free liver, and spent his ill-gotten gains in ostentation and sensual extravagance. Bigot seized on the supplies sent from France to Canada, and sold them at an exorbitant rate for his own profit. He mocked the misery of the people, and made his gain of it. At his will he compelled them to bring their grain to his granaries, and sell it at his own price. The shameless, corrupt example he set was followed by his subordinates all over the colony. Jonquiere died before the investigation into the charges against him, ordered by the Court of France, was held. The misdeeds of the far greater sinner, Bigot, if they did not escape notice, did not bring on him formal censure. He held the colony in his clutch to the last.

95. The British government now took steps to colonize Nova Scotia in earnest. Chebucto, with its magnificent harbor, was the site chosen for the new settlement. To encourage them to go there, King George II. offered grants of land, free passages, arms, ammunition, utensils,

and sustenance for a year, to half-pay officers, disbanded soldiers and sailors, artificers, and laborers. So it came about that on **21st of June, 1749**, the war-vessel "**Sphynx**," bearing the Governor, Hon. Edward Cornwallis, and conveying a fleet of thirteen transports, bearing 2,500 persons, "of all sorts and conditions," entered the world-famous harbor, known ever since as Halifax harbor, in honor of the Earl of Halifax, President of the Lords of Trade and Plantations. The country was an unbroken wilderness. Some of the new settlers, in walking through the woods, came upon bleaching skeletons, the remains of some soldiers of D'Anville's disastrous expedition, who, sick of the scurvy and of dysentery, had landed, to wander and die. On the slope of the western arm of the harbor, between the fort and the summit of the hill and the harbor, **the foundation of Halifax was laid**. At the end of a very busy summer and autumn three hundred log-houses, surrounded by palisades and defended by two forts, were erected.

96. The following year, and the years succeeding that, a number of Germans came out on the same conditions as the English had, and settled at Malagash Bay, and commenced to build the town of **Lunenburg**. The people of Halifax and Lunenburg escaped none of the trials, difficulties, privations, and dangers incident to first settlements in a rough country, amid hostile people; for the French and Indians viewed their rise with jealous eyes and angry hearts.

97. One of the first acts of Governor Cornwallis was to summon deputies from the Acadian districts to appear before his council and take the oath of allegiance to the English king. But they refused to take the unconditional oath, though they were warned by the blunt-spoken governor, who upbraided their people for their ingratitude to good King George for his many acts of kindness. They thus stored up for themselves wrath

against the day of vengeance. The Acadians, at this time, were kept in a rebellious temper through the artifices and threats of a busy, meddling, ambitious priest, *Abbé de Loutre*. So busy was he that he over-acted his part. He was reprov'd by his ecclesiastical superiors in Quebec, but he did not mend his ways.

98. A board of English and French commissioners met at Paris in 1750 to settle the disputed boundaries of the possessions of France and England in America. They argued for three years, and came to no decision. But while the board was sitting De Loutre persuaded certain Acadians of the peninsula to abandon their marsh farms, and settle on the isthmus of Chignecto, at Tantrammar, and gave them assurance that the said board would certainly decide that Chignecto and the country north of the Bay of Fundy belonged to France. These poor deluded people went by the name of the "deserted inhabitants." Through the Abbé's influence a strong, though small fort (*Beauséjour*) was erected on a gentle elevation on the marsh, north of the Missiguash River, and commanding the road from Beaubassin to Bay Verte, by which the Acadians carried on their illegal traffic with Louisburg. To stop that traffic, the English built *Fort St. Lawrence*, south of the Missiguash, and about a mile from *Beauséjour*. At first courtesies were exchanged between the forts, but after the treacherous shooting down of the English commandant, at the instigation, it is said, of De Loutre, these courtesies ceased.

CHAPTER XIV.

COLLISION IN THE VALLEY OF THE OHIO.

99. WHEN the Boundary Commission in Paris rose in 1753 without coming to any decision on the question in

dispute between England and France, there was no doubt in the mind of any one, in view of the state of ex-
1758 asperation and jealousy between the people of Canada and the English colonies, that these questions would have to be decided by force of arms. In anticipation of war, **M. du Quesne, the governor-general, called out the militia.** As the Iroquois would be powerful allies in the coming contest, great efforts were made to win them entirely over to the French side. Since 1713 they had not much troubled the colony. But these efforts were counteracted by a wild Irishman, William Johnson, then British Superintendent of Indian Affairs. He had married Molly Brant, the sister of a chief of the Mohawks, and his word was law with the warriors of that canton and the cantons nearest it. So, while the western Iroquois were friendly to the French, the eastern Iroquois were with the British.

100. And now the act was done which brought on the war that wrenched the American continent out of the hands of the French. Some London and Virginia capitalists formed the "**Ohio Company,**" and purchased a large tract of land in the "debatable territory," and had a fort built at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers. Before the fort was finished the commandant of the nearest French post sent a body of men to dispossess the English, and he called the fort thus forcibly captured "**Du Quesne.**" Without loss of time the governor of Virginia sent to the French commandant, Contrecoeur, an angry demand for its immediate restitution, with an order that he was no longer to seize English traders and confiscate the goods of the Ohio Company. A body of Virginia militiamen, led by the famous **George Washington,** then a youth, made their way into the "debatable territory;" but before reaching Fort du Quesne they were met by a French officer with a few soldiers, who made a

formal protest against this trespassing on the domains of the king of France. There are different accounts of how it came about that the French officer was shot dead, but there is no doubt as to the fact. Washington then encamped on the "Little Meadows," and his men threw up a line of entrenchments, which he named "Fort Necessity." For a month and more, with his few militia, he held this weak position against a French force much superior in numbers; and then capitulated on honorable terms.

101. After the collision in the valley of the Ohio war was inevitable. Though France and England made no formal declaration of war, their governments sent out military reinforcements to their colonies. A son of the late idolized M. de Vaudreuil came out to Quebec as governor-general, and with him Baron Dieskau with several veteran battalions. General Braddock soon afterwards arrived in America with two English regiments. At this time some of the leading minds in the English colonies, notably Benjamin Franklin, advocated their confederation, as union would give them greater strength to defend themselves and attack the enemy. But the time was not ripe for the scheme. 1755

102. The colonial governors met at Alexandria, and, with Braddock, drew up a plan of campaign which would have given them possession of all the debatable territory had it been successfully carried out. They proposed to capture forts Beauséjour, Du Quesne, Crown Point, and Niagara.

103. By the beginning of June two thousand men, under Colonel Monckton and Captain John Winslow, were landed in the Isthmus of Chignecto, near Fort Lawrence. Governor Verger held Beauséjour with a garrison of one hundred and fifty soldiers. Outside the fort a crowd of Acadians — "deserted inhabitants" many of them — who had come at his call, but half-heartedly — were posted at the bridge over the Missiguash. They made but a feeble

resistance to the passing of the enemy and then fled, some to the woods, where their women and children were lying hid, the rest into the fort, where their numbers crowded its confined space while their fears discouraged the garrison. The English, after crossing the bridge, took up a position six hundred yards north of the fort, and opened fire. Verger replied. The stifling smoke and the deadly effect of the bursting shells so alarmed the Acadians that they fled. On the morning of the fourth day a bomb exploded in the casemate, where a party of French officers were breakfasting with an English prisoner. Before day closed Verger capitulated, and supped with the captors in the fort, which, that evening, was named **Cumberland**. In the mean time, De Loutre had made his escape, bearing with him the curses of a deceived people.

CHAPTER XV.

EXPULSION OF THE ACADIANS.

1755 104. On the 9th of July **General Braddock** reached the **Monongahela** on his way to **Fort du Quesne**. He was a haughty, irascible, overbearing soldier, and he contemned colonial advisers and colonial militia. He knew nothing, and would learn nothing, of the mode of warfare proper to be pursued in a wilderness country. Here he left a portion of his force, with the heavy luggage in camp, and pushed forward with twelve hundred men. The regiments marched with fife and drum and flying colors, and the French had timely warning of their approach. Had he only hearkened to counsel, and allowed **Washington** and his **Virginians** to go ahead, it probably would have been well. But he was obstinate, disdainful. So his advanced guard crossed the stream, to

a lively air from the fises, and then, when in the woods, the French and the Indians, with fierce yells, rose from their coverts, discharged a withering volley, and sank out of sight. Taken by surprise, the van fell back in terror, and threw the main body into confusion as it entered the defile. Braddock again and again vainly endeavored to re-form his broken ranks; in vain his gallant officers urged their men to charge and clear the coverts from which the foe was safely shooting them down. The men were panic-stricken, and fled in utter rout to the camp, forty miles off. Washington and the Virginians threw themselves across the stream, and prevented the French and Indians from pursuing and slaughtering the fugitives. Sixty-three officers and six hundred men were killed and wounded in that fatal defile. Braddock had five horses killed under him before he fell, and, as he lay dying, he wondered how the king's trained troops should have been so utterly routed by lurking savages.

105. This awful disaster spread perfect dismay among the English colonies. Then, William Johnson, "the wild Irishman," showed of what stuff he was made. Like all savages, the Iroquois saw not beyond the immediate event, and thought the English once beaten would always be beaten. But, through his power over them, he kept them from going over in a body to the French; and, in advancing to attack Crown Point, on hearing that Dieskau, with two thousand men, was advancing to attack him, he took up so strong a position that he repulsed the foe with great slaughter. This success somewhat revived the spirits of the English colonists. On the spot where Johnson defeated the Baron, he caused to be erected Fort William Henry. The attack on Fort Niagara was relinquished.

106. The Acadians of Nova Scotia did not conceal their joy at Braddock's defeat. Their display of feeling was, to

quote the old proverb, "the last straw that broke the camel's back." Governor Lawrence had, previously, contemplated a stern act—that determined him to take action. Still, he gave the Acadians another chance. He summoned their deputies before him and demanded them to take the absolute oath of allegiance to the king of England, and he warned them that the consequences of their refusing would be very serious. They refused, and he ordered them to prison. Their incarceration had not the effect of changing their mind; so the governor dismissed them to their several districts, and they went, not even then afraid that Lawrence would execute his threat.

107. The final decision to expel the Acadians was taken at a meeting of council, in Halifax, July 28. Lawrence wrote to his brother governors from Maine to Georgia, stating the necessity of the act, and requiring them to detain the people who would be sent. It was late harvest time when, all unexpectedly, British ships entered the Basin of Annapolis, and anchored off the mouth of the Canard and Gaspereau rivers. Then, when too late, conviction that great trouble was coming upon them struck the people; many fled to the woods—then a woful work commenced. Poetry has thrown its halo over the scenes of the expulsion in the prosperous village of Grand Pré, on the Basin of Minas. Imagine the terror, the agonizing sorrow, the despair of the poor people who saw their loved homesteads, and their more beloved chapels, given to the flames, their fields and orchards ruthlessly wasted, and themselves, at the point of the bayonet, forced on board ship, to be borne they knew not whither, but certainly to strange places, to endure cheerless lives, if not utter ruin and death. The Acadians, generally, bore their fate with wonderful patience. Where they resisted it, as at Chignecto, Memramcook, and Petticodiac, heartrending scenes ensued.

Three thousand were in this way expelled, and distributed among the English colonies, but not a few returned after the final peace in 1763.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE OPENING OF THE FINAL WAR.

108. In the year 1756 the great nations of Europe commenced the war which is known in history as the **Seven Years' War**. Prussia, led by Frederick II., fought single-handed against Russia, Austria, and France. England supplied him with money, but took no part in the warfare on the continent. She met her special enemy, France, on the seas, in India, and in America.

109. **War against France** was formally declared by the British government in March, and the French king made a counter-declaration in May. Unfortunately, an incapable minister, the Duke of Newcastle, was at the head of the government in Great Britain, and he appointed very incapable officers to conduct the war against Canada, and consequently everything went wrong at first. The French king, on the contrary, appointed **Marquis de Montcalm** to the head of his forces in Canada, with other distinguished, accomplished, and experienced officers. At the beginning of the year the English governors met in New York and drew out a plan of campaign, but the Earl of Loudoun, the British commander-in-chief, took no means to carry it out. Montcalm, on the other hand, was very alert. He besieged and razed to the ground Oswego, the British naval depot on Lake Ontario, advanced as far as **Crown Point** on Lake Champlain, and afterwards entrenched himself eight miles beyond it, on the rocks of Ticonderoga.

110. In the spring of this year, a fleet of fourteen great war vessels under Admiral Holborne, carrying seven vet-

eran regiments, appeared in Halifax harbor. But the admiral was as undecided and dilatory as was the commander-in-chief. They held naval reviews and sham fights at Halifax, but had no heart for real fighting. They made a feint of attacking the fortress of **Louisburg**. Hearing that it was strongly fortified and garrisoned, they thought discretion the better part of valor, and did not venture to attack it. All summer, between Halifax and **Louisburg**, sailed the British fleet, until it met an enemy worse than the French — a furious storm — that wrecked one of the finest vessels, and drove others dismasted to seek the nearest ports. **Holborne**, with the remainder, returned to England.

111. **Montcalm** advanced from **Crown Point**, and besieged **Fort William Henry**, which was held by **Colonel Munro** and a small force. Southeast of **Lake Champlain**, on the **Hudson River**, was **Fort Edward**, held by **Colonel Webb** and four thousand men. **Webb**, though urgently requested by **Munro** to come to his aid, refused. Having fired away his last cartridge and finding his position untenable, **Munro** capitulated on honorable terms. A dreadful incident occurred as the British soldiers and the women and children were filing away from the fort; thousands of bloodthirsty savages threw themselves upon them and made a fearful massacre. The fiends spared neither the tender babe nor the distracted mother; they pulled the soldiers out of their ranks by the skirts of their long great-coats, and dispatched them with tomahawks. **Montcalm** appeared and stayed the murderous rage of his Indian allies, but he ought to have come sooner, and kept his red allies in check and his military honor untarnished. The war, on account of such deeds as this massacre, and the wholesale slaughters, the torturings and burnings in the skirmishes and midnight surprises on the frontiers of **New York**, **Pennsylvania**, and the **New England colonies**, assumed a very brutal character.

112. The disgraces and disasters to the British arms in Canada roused the British people to deep indignation. The incapable Newcastle ministry was swept from power. **William Pitt**, the great commoner, best known as the Earl of Chatham, was called to the head of the government. He was the right man in the right place, and knew himself to be so. He was determined to conquer Canada if it cost the last English man and the last English shilling. His imperious and determined temper infused confidence throughout the British army and the English colonies in America. He appointed able officers to commands, **Colonel Jeffrey Amherst** and **Colonel James Wolfe**. Most unfortunately, however, he left **General Abercrombie**, who had been appointed by Newcastle, in the chief command, to attack **Montcalm** in **Ticonderoga**, and the consequence was a dreadful disaster to British arms. To **Amherst** and **Wolfe** was entrusted the task of taking **Louisburg**, aided by a powerful fleet under **Admiral Boscawen**. **Louisburg** in 1758 did not deserve its reputation as the strongest fortification on this continent, "the Dunkirk of America." The fortifications had been 1758 allowed to fall into decay, and many of the carriages of the guns were so rotten that they could not stand the shock of discharge. On hearing of the threatened attack, **M. Drucour** did what he could to repair the ramparts. He had 3,500 soldiers, militia and Indians. Five line-of-battle ships rode in the harbor, which was protected by a strong battery on **Goat Island**, and three sunken frigates at its mouth.

113. The British fleet, carrying 1,400 British soldiers, arrived in **Gabarus Bay** early in June. For nearly a week the stormy weather and heavy seas prevented the landing of the force. On the 8th the word was passed to make the attempt. The British force was divided into three divisions, and **Wolfe** led the third, composed of Grenadiers

and Highlanders. A number of boats were swamped in the surf or shattered on the rocks. Wolfe's division was the first to land, and in face of the fire of the French above at Cormaron Creek, they scaled the rugged path and seized the guns. When the landing was made, the French abandoned all the outside batteries and retreated into Louisburg. The danger and difficulty of conveying siege guns and material from the fleet to the coast and hauling them over the marshes were very great, but not too great for British soldiers and sailors. For seven weeks the British poured a converging fire on Louisburg, — Wolfe from Lighthouse Point in the east, Colonels Whitmore and Lawrence on the west, while Admiral Boscawen poured red-hot shot and shell into the harbor, and destroyed and captured the five great war-ships. Then, on the 26th of July, the brave M. Drucour "surrendered at discretion." The inhabitants were conveyed to France, and the soldiers and sailors were sent prisoners to England. Cape Breton then came permanently into the possession of the British crown, and, along with it, the Island of St. John (Prince Edward Island), that had then a population of 4,100. Two years after its capture Louisburg was razed to the ground.

114. In August, Colonel Bradstreet took Fort Frontenac (Kingston), thus closing against the French the eastern pass to Lake Ontario, and in November, Colonel Forbes captured Fort du Quesne (afterwards called Fort Pitt), which gave the British a hold on the valley of the Ohio.

CHAPTER XVII.

CLOSE OF THE WAR, AND CONQUEST.

115. PITT was resolved that this next campaign should be the final one. He called on the English colonies to raise a

large force and make a great effort. They nobly responded to his call. On the other hand, the war in Europe having gone against France, Louis XV. was neither disposed nor able to send reinforcements. His minister, M. Berryer, is reported to have said: "When the house is on fire one does not mind the stables," a speech that showed how little Canada was valued in France. Montcalm was told to maintain a foothold in Canada, but he had little hope of being able to do so. The country was a mere skeleton, held by a few key-fortresses; when these were taken the country would be lost; already two of them, Forts Frontenac and Du Quesne, had been captured. **The country was in a state of sore distress; there was no martial enthusiasm among the militia, who were miserably equipped and most scantily fed. How could they be expected to fight with ardor when those who were set over them as rulers and guides, robbed, cheated, and maltreated them! Montcalm's chief dependence was in ten regiments of French veterans very much reduced in number. The governor, M. de Vaudreuil, put on the best face he could, and issued a spiritedly worded proclamation to rouse the militia to repel the British invaders.**

116. The British plan of campaign included the capture of Fort Niagara, Montreal, and Quebec. To Brigadier Prideaux and Sir William Johnson was given the task of capturing the fort, while General Amherst was to move against Montreal with eleven thousand men. After Fort Niagara and Montreal were taken, Prideaux and Amherst were to advance to Quebec to co-operate with Wolfe in the capture of that fortress. But, as the Scotch poet says, "the best laid schemes o' mice and men aft gang agley." Prideaux was killed by the splinter of a shell, and Sir William Johnson, after the capture of Fort Niagara, thought it advisable to stay where he was, while Amherst found insurmountable difficulties in his way, and was compelled to

rest at **Crown Point**, where he went into winter quarters. So Wolfe was left to capture Quebec with the force under his command, numbering eight thousand soldiers, with the fleet under Admirals Saunders and Holmes.

117. No finer or more striking sight ever met the eyes of Wolfe than the castellated town of **Quebec** perched on its lofty rock, looking over the blue St. Lawrence to the height of Point Levi, and down on the broad basin enclosed by the green Isle of Orleans, and the Beauport shore stretching to the heights of Montmorency and the Falls, with the bold line of the Charlesbourg Mountains in the northern distance. The difficulties of the situation crowded on his mind. Much was expected from him. He had been specially selected by Pitt to do a deed of daring. His responsibilities weighed heavily upon him. As he had been promoted over the heads of older men to take command of the expedition he was the mark of jealous eyes. The problem before him was, **where to make the attack**. He divided his force into three divisions. Brigadier Moncton occupied Point Levi, Generals Townsend and Murray encamped on the west point of the Isle of Orleans, and he himself and his Louisbourg Grenadiers were posted on the west bank of the Montmorency, close to the Falls. From the Falls to the river St. Charles at Quebec, along the **Beauport shore**, ran an irregular crest of land, fortified at all points, and held by twelve thousand militia, besides Indians. The mouth of the river was guarded by sunken boats and by hulks bristling with cannon. The water was very shallow along the shore, and the wide mud flats made landing on the face of the coast almost impossible. During all July his batteries on Point Levi poured shot and shell into Quebec, and such of the inhabitants as had been compelled to remain in it were reduced to a pitiable condition of terror and semi-starvation. On the last day of the month Wolfe

made his attack on the entrenchments along Beauport shore at a point a little west of the Falls. **It failed disastrously.** Some of the boats were sunk by shots from the French batteries, others grounded on a sunken ledge of rock. As the Louisburg Grenadiers and Loyal Americans landed, the rain fell in torrents, and they charged up to the now slippery slope, many stumbling and falling to the batteries, and were mowed down by the fire. Four hundred men were killed and wounded. Wolfe reprimanded the survivors for not waiting until the whole force had landed, and he charged the disaster to their rash courage.

118. This disaster broke down Wolfe, who, at the best, was a man of frail health. For a month he lay tossing on the bed of sickness, and the gloom of discouragement fell on the army. But the discouragement of the French was much greater. In the beginning of September **Wolfe was himself again**, and cheerfulness returned to the British army with the bustle of preparation. A new plan of attack had been determined upon. On the 12th of September Wolfe made a show of again attacking the entrenchments along Beauport shore, which deceived Montcalm. In the meantime the British army marched along the southern bank of the St. Lawrence to a point eight miles above Quebec, where the division of the British fleet under Admiral Holmes was at anchor. When the night set in, starry and still, a flotilla of boats dropped down with the tide; the fleet slowly followed. Wolfe was in the foremost boat, and, to relieve the excitement of his mind, he recited the then new poem, Gray's "Elegy," and said to the officers with him that he would rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec. But when the boat touched the shore of the cove selected for landing, he quickly threw off his sentiment, and was the first to leap out. All during the night the boats from the fleet landed soldiers. The force had to ascend a narrow, tortuous path, which ran up

the face of the rock. A body of agile Highlanders was the first to scale it, and to surprise and capture a French guard. Wolfe and his whole army quickly followed. By sunrise he had ranged it in order of battle on the Plains of Abraham.

119. Montcalm was awfully surprised when he heard of the movement Wolfe had made. He hurried off to fight the audacious foe. He had 7,520 men against 4,826 on the British side, but half his force was not to be relied on. In the battle Wolfe and Montcalm took a place in the centre of their respective armies, and there the fight was hottest. Gallantly the French advanced to the attack, and coolly and steadily the British stood. Fast they fell before the fire of the advancing French, but not until the foe was within forty yards of them, "till they could see his eyes," did they return it. One mighty volley of British musketry decided the battle; the French militia fled, the veterans wavered. The British charged with bayonet and claymore, and the French army, completely routed, fled into Quebec, bearing with them Montcalm, mortally wounded. Wolfe was wounded early in the battle; as he led the final charge he was shot in the body, and fell into the arms of a grenadier officer. This officer, as he was bearing his dying general to the rear, turned to the field of battle: "See, they run," he said. "Who run?" said Wolfe. "The enemy, sir; they give way everywhere." "Now, God be praised," sighed Wolfe, "I die happy."

120. The loss of British and French was heavy, especially in generals and officers. The total loss of the British was 662, that of the French 1,500. Five days after the battle of the Plains, on the 18th of September, the British entered Quebec as masters.

121. In the spring of the following year the French, under M. de Levi, made a great effort to recapture their beloved Quebec. The rashness of General Murray in leaving Quebec, and fighting the French on

1760

disadvantageous ground, at the village of Ste. Foye, nearly put it into his hands. As it happened, Murray succeeded in fighting his way back to Quebec, but with very heavy loss. M. de Levi commenced to besiege the city, and might have stood a very good chance of taking it in that way had not the English fleet appeared in the St. Lawrence in May. Then he decamped, and joined Governor M. de Vaudreuil in Montreal, there to make the final stand. On the 8th of September three British armies, numbering ten thousand men, met on the island of Montreal within forty-eight hours of each other. **M. de Vaudreuil surrendered, with his army** of twenty thousand at discretion. That was the final act in the conquest of Canada. Most of the *noblesse* and the civil officers soon after left the colony, but the bulk of the population, who were secured in the enjoyment of their property and the free exercise of their religion, became subjects of the crown of Great Britain. Then came to an end the era of perpetual war and slow progress; then commenced the era of peace, commercial enterprise, political agitations, and advancing prosperity.

LEADING DATES.—FRENCH PERIOD.—TIME OF ROYAL GOVERNMENT.

Sovereign Council established in Canada . . .	A. D. 1663
Treaty of Breda — Acadie restored to France . . .	1667
Count Frontenac, Governor-general	1672
Mississippi discovered	1673
Massacre of Lachine	1689
Sir William Phips seizes Port Royal; repulsed at Quebec	1690
Peace of Ryswick	1697
Treaty of Utrecht	1713
Capture of Louisburg by New Englanders	1745
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle	1748
Expulsion of Acadians	1755
Meeting of first General Assembly at Halifax . .	1758
Battle of the Plains of Abraham	1759
End of French rule	1760

III. ENGLISH PERIOD.

1760 TO THE PRESENT TIME. 124 YEARS.

Leading features. — Political strife ending in the establishment of Responsible Government — Industrial and commercial activity — Formation of the Dominion.

CHAPTER I.

AFTER THE CONQUEST.

122. IN the same year in which Canada became a British possession George III. was crowned. He ascended the
1760 throne determined to "be king," to govern the empire by his own will, to direct the policy of his ministers. After the conquest, and while the Seven Years' War continued, the "new subjects," of King George, as the Canadians were called, cherished hopes that Canada would yet be restored to France, and it required firm hands to keep them in order. **The colony was divided into three districts, Quebec, Montreal, Three Rivers, and placed under the rule of military councils, of which the governors were Generals Murray and Gage, and Colonel Burton.** It was an arbitrary form of government; but to this, however, the mass of Canadian *habitans* were accustomed; but it was obnoxious to the members of the *noblesse* who still remained in the country, and to the "old subjects," the British, who came in after the conquest to settle.

123. In very truth it was a fortunate thing for the Canadian people when French domination came to an end. It left the colony bankrupt, with its credit utterly destroyed, and themselves in a state of extreme misery and destitution. It is satisfactory to know that when

Bigot and his subordinates returned to France, they were thrown into the Bastille and forced to disgorge a portion of the unrighteous wealth they had acquired by fraud, oppression, and barefaced swindling.

124. The Seven Years' War came to a close in 1762, and the definite **treaty of peace** was signed at Paris on October 1st of the following year. By the fourth article, the king of France ceded absolutely to the crown of **1763** Great Britain, Nova Scotia, Canada, Cape Breton, and all the islands in the river and gulf of St. Lawrence, except St. Peter and Miquelon. By a royal proclamation, dated October 7, Canada was constituted the "**Province of Quebec**," and its boundaries were defined. By this proclamation, and a later one dated December 17, **inducements were held out to British subjects to settle** in Quebec, and a civil government was instituted. The king promised that representative institutions should be established in the province, and gave an assurance to all persons inhabiting it, that they might confide in the royal protection for the enjoyment of the benefit of English laws. Grants were made on a graduated scale, from five thousand acres to field officers, to fifty acres to privates, on condition that the grantees would improve and cultivate the land. They were subject, after ten years, to pay "quit rents," which was a small tax paid in acknowledgment of subjection to the sovereign, and by payment of which the proprietors were quit from all other service. It was a most unpopular tax, it may be said, in all the provinces, and being allowed to accumulate, the greatest discontent was raised when government proposed to collect it. Very little of it ever went into the treasury. The lands in Quebec granted to British subjects were in effect granted on the tenure of free and common socage, the sole conditions of which were allegiance to the king and obedience to the laws.

125. The **civil government of Quebec** consisted of a governor and council, who made laws and administered them. The sole power which the council did not exercise was that of taxation; this power belonged exclusively to the Imperial Parliament. Courts were established: the supreme court, where the chief justice presided, and where all civil and criminal cases were decided according to the law of England; and the court of common pleas, where all matters were determined by equity, subject to appeal to the supreme court. Justices of the peace were appointed, who had the power to settle, in a summary way, cases under five pounds currency. General Murray was appointed governor.

126. Soon after the capitulation at Montreal, in September, 1760, a British officer, with a force, was sent to take formal possession of Detroit and all the French posts in the country of the Great Lakes. By the following spring **the royal British standard floated from the forts** in that vast wilderness, which is now the centre of the busiest civilization. The change from the "white lily" to the "red cross" did not please the Canadian fur traders of that region, or the **Indians** who traded at the posts. The latter grew **angry, discontented, ripe for mischief**, eager to believe the tale told by the Canadian "runners," that the King of France had awakened from his sleep, and was sending out a great army to wrest the country from the hands of the English. Nothing would have happened had there not been one chief who had the mind to conceive a daring scheme, and the courage to carry it into execution. This was **Pontiac**, a chief of the Ottawas, whose wigwams were pitched on the western shore of Lake Huron. He had fought on the French side in the late war, and he now hated the English for the indignities they offered to his race, and because, having no need of it, they spurned the alliance they once coveted. He burned to exterminate

the English and reduce the country to barbarity; anything to have revenge. His messengers carried the belts, the signal of war, to the tribes dwelling around the lakes, and to the Shawnees and Delawares, whose *bourgades* were on the branches of the Ohio, and these tribes eagerly entered into the conspiracy. But of all the Six Nations only the Senecas joined it. It was agreed that a simultaneous at-



THE LAKE REGION.

tack should be made on the posts held by the English, and on their settlements on the frontiers of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. The rising was to 1763
take place on the 7th of May. Pontiac desired to strike a sudden, decisive blow. He undertook to capture the most important post of all — Detroit. With a retinue of chiefs, all closely wrapped in their blankets, and hiding their shortened rifles, he gained admittance to the fort. His inten-

tion was to ask a council, and when Commandant Gladwyn and his officers were off their guard, to shoot them through the head, and then fall to and butcher the garrison. When he entered the fort he saw the soldiers drawn up in the square with muskets at rest and bayonets fixed, and the officers with their side-arms and pistols in their belts. He made some excuse for doing some trifling business, and then departed with Indian imperturbability, which covered surprise, anger, and disappointment. Next morning he and his chiefs appeared again, but he was bluntly told to be gone. He had been, as he then knew, betrayed, and terrible was his wrath when he found that a young squaw had turned traitress and disclosed the secret to Gladwyn. Pontiac then beleaguered the fort, and day and night the garrison had no rest. His allies intercepted their supplies. Scouts brought them intelligence during the summer that increased their anxiety, of the capture and destruction of seven forts, of the beleaguering of Fort Pitt by the Indians, and of terrible ravages on the frontiers. They heard that on the king's birthday there was a holiday in Fort Michillimackinac, and that the Sacs and Ojibaways played a game of "lacrosse," while the officers looked on and betted. While it was going on, their squaws entered the fort with tomahawks under their blankets. At a point in the game the ball was struck with great force and bounded against the pickets. Then the crowd of players rushed, yelling, towards the fort, seized the officers, and, entering, snatched the tomahawks from the squaws, and killed an officer and fifteen privates, and captured the place.

127. General Amherst in New York, hearing of these disasters, sent parties to relieve the beleaguered forts. Eagerly the harassed garrison of Detroit welcomed Captain Dalzell and two hundred and forty soldiers. But short was their feeling of relief, for Dalzell, against all advice,

attacked Pontiac in his strongly entrenched camp four miles above the fort, and was repulsed, and was himself slain. Colonel Boquet with several companies of the 42d Highlanders and Rangers started from Philadelphia to relieve Fort Pitt. They had to toil across the Alleghanies, pass dangerous and difficult defiles, and fight the Indians at Bushy Run. Boquet gave battle and routed them, and then pushed on and relieved Fort Pitt. This decided success broke the heart of the conspiracy. Some of the confederate tribes made peace and departed for the winter's hunting. Pontiac, seeing that his allies were leaving him, and hearing certain news of the peace between France and England, retired in gloom and disgust to his camp. All winter, spring, and summer, however, the garrison of Detroit was compelled to be constantly on the watch, for Indians prowled around. Late in the month of August, General Bradstreet appeared with a relieving force, 1764 and they were welcomed with the wildest demonstrations of joy; and Colonel Boquet marched into the lands of the Shawnees and Delawares, and forced them to sue for peace and give up their prisoners. This was the last Indian war we shall have to chronicle. Pontiac was a few years afterwards killed by a trader in St. Louis.

CHAPTER II.

SETTLEMENTS ON THE "ST. JOHN."

128. WHILE the war continued, Nova Scotia was in an unsettled state. After the capture of Fort Beauséjour, and the expulsion of the Acadians, numbers fled across the bay to the mouth of the St. John, to be under the protection of Fort la Tour, to the Fort of Gemseg, and to

St. Ann's Point (Fredericton), where there was a considerable French settlement. Others found their way to the settlements on the rivers of the North, Miramichi, Nepisiguit, Restigouche, and on the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. But their evil destiny followed them. After the capture of Louisburg the colonial governments took steps to oust the French out of the country north of the Bay. **Fort la Tour was taken by storm**, and its name changed to Fort Frederick. Wolfe, on his way to Quebec with the British fleet, had the odious task assigned him of destroying the settlements on the coast, from Miramichi to Bay Chaleur, and from Gaspé to Point Levi. Those settlements that were not ravaged by fire and sword were swept by famine and pestilence; and in this way the one on Beaubair's Island, in the Miramichi, was carried off. La Petite Rochelle, a large settlement on the Restigouche, was destroyed by English ships under Captain Byron. After the fall of Quebec the British military authorities sent companies of Provincial **rangers to sweep away the French settlements on the river St. John**; and, according to the testimony of those who explored the country two or three years afterwards, they must have done their work remorselessly. But the French were not driven out. On the north shore, when "the great trouble" came, many fled into the woods, and reappeared when their enemies disappeared; and those on the St. John, at St. Ann's, and round Fort Frederick, were removed to Madawaska and elsewhere.

129. In Nova Scotia the New Englanders did not care to take up the marsh lands, still black from the fires of the "expulsion," when they were exposed to the attacks of the Acadians banded with their Micmac friends. The uncertainty of events while the war lasted tended to keep the province unsettled. **The delay in establishing representative institutions** was another, and probably stronger, rea-

son. People questioned the validity of the laws passed by the governor and council, without the sanction of the representatives of the people. They had no confidence in the government. Lawrence, like many a good old Tory in those days, disliked popular assemblies. But he was forced to give way when urged by the "Lords of Plantations."

130 Accordingly, on October 2, 1758, a General Assembly, the first ever convoked within the territory of the Dominion, met in the court-house at Halifax. 1758 The House consisted of twenty-two members, twelve of whom represented the Province at large, ten the townships of Halifax, Lunenburg, Dartmouth, Annapolis, and Cumberland. The Church of England was established by law; liberty of conscience was allowed to all other religious bodies.

131. While the war lasted between France and England, the people of Halifax were subject to attack and had many scares; but when the second Assembly met the "conquest" had been made, and there was peace. A feeling of confidence grew up, and the Acadian and other fertile lands on the Bay of Fundy side were taken up by a good class of English settlers. In 1761 the Indians made a treaty of peace with Lawrence's successor, Belcher. After the final peace (1763) Cape Breton and the island of St. John were annexed to the government of Nova Scotia; and it came to pass that another and new district was also annexed to it.

132. Steps were taken in 1760, by the New England governments, to settle the country north of the Bay, and not allow it to relapse into the hands of the Acadians and Indians. British officers had given very favorable accounts of the lands lying along the St. John, and some received large grants on parts of it. This was the case of a Colonel Mauger, who was granted the island which

bears his name. In 1761 a party headed by Israel Perley, under authority from the government of Massachusetts, explored the river from the Oromocto upwards, and found it fit and ready for settlement. Next year a party of twenty from Newburyport, Mass., sailed into the harbor of St. John, which had just been regularly sounded and surveyed. They found shelter at first in Fort Frederick, which was then ungarrisoned, or had only a corporal's guard. Two years before, one hundred and fifty of the soldiers, tired of the monotony of the dreary station, sailed in open boats, without leave, to Machias. Among the Newburyport party, the advance guard of the British settlers, the pioneers of the loyal band who came in twenty years afterwards, were James Simonds, James White, Francis Peabody. They had more faith in the future, or a better eye for a settlement, than the rest of the party, who did not like the wild, rough look of the place. They proceeded to establish there a fishing and trading station. The others ascended the river as far as St. Ann's Point (Fredericton), and would have settled on the flats, which were extensively cleared, only overgrown since the destruction of the French settlement, but were deterred by the menaces of the Indians, who appeared in great numbers. They then dropped down the river, and on the mainland, opposite Manger's Island, they laid out a township, and named it **Mangerville**. Next year about two hundred families, of Puritan stock, or eight hundred persons in all, from the parishes of Rowley, Andover, and Boxford settled there. The people had much to discourage them. The Indians were at first hostile, but in 1765 they came to a friendly understanding with their white brothers. In that year the country bordering on the St. John was erected into the county of Sunbury, and a member was elected to represent it in the General Assembly of Nova Scotia. Courts of justice were estab-

lished, and the sittings held at Oromocto. Trading stations were established at St. Anne's to trade with the then friendly Indians.

183. About this time a survey was made of the Island of St. John (Prince Edward Island). It was computed to contain 355,000 acres fit for settlement. A great portion of this fertile domain was, on one day, raffled away in lots to officers of the army and navy, on condition that they paid "quit rents," and that they actually settled in it one person to every two hundred acres. Most of this land came into the hands of a few absentee proprietors; and, as Lord Durham said, "the prosperity of the island was stifled in the cradle of its existence." It became a distinct government in 1767, when there were only a hundred and fifty families upon it.

CHAPTER III.

"PROVINCE OF QUEBEC."

134. THE "Province of Quebec," as its governors soon found, was a very difficult country to govern. The British Protestant minority were only as one to a hundred and fifty of the Catholic French-Canadian majority. What they lacked in numbers, they made up in self-assertion. They bore themselves as masters of the province, and would have treated the French-Canadians as a conquered people. They were energetic and enterprising, and had seven-eighths of the commerce of the colony in their hands, and they dwelt in the towns. They hated the rule of the arbitrary council, and waited impatiently for the fulfilment of the promise made by the king, of the introduction of representative institutions. The French-Canadians were a docile and agricultural people, and they



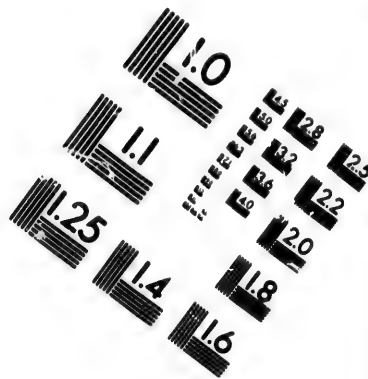
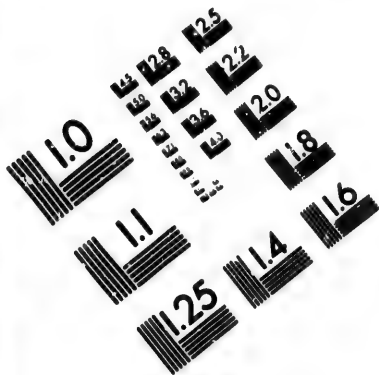
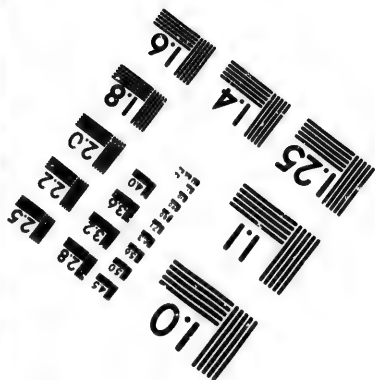
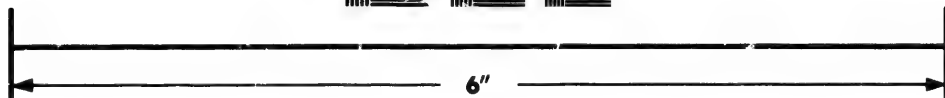
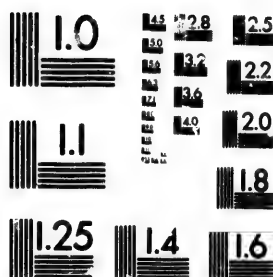


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dwelt in the country. They were under the guidance and influence of their priests. They held tenaciously to their language, laws, and customs, and preserved their nationality. They, in the mass, were indifferent to the form of civil government. Governor Murray said "that they thought whate'er was best administered, was best." The best instructed among them would not have objected to the establishment of representative institutions if the Catholic population had a fair representation. The noblesse and those who had claim to social position were aggrieved that they were not represented in the council, and that they were debarred from holding office. Their religion made it impossible that they could take the oath, — that against transubstantiation, — which would have made them eligible. It will be readily seen that there were causes of dissatisfaction among the British minority and the French-Canadian majority.

135. Governor Murray leaned towards the French-Canadians, whom he found much more easy to govern than his turbulent fellow-countrymen. The British complained to the king of his conduct, and he was recalled to answer the charges against him. He was succeeded by Brigadier-General Guy Carleton (who had fought under Wolfe),
1766 and he showed himself still more decidedly favorable to the French majority.

136. It has been stated that, under the constitution of the proclamation, the civil and criminal law of England was introduced into the Quebec courts. The French-Canadians readily accepted the criminal law and trial by jury, as its superiority over the French criminal law was apparent. But trial by jury in civil cases was objected to, by the noblesse out of mere pride, by the *habitans* because it was more expensive than the practice they were accustomed to, and because the unanimity required in the de-

isions seemed to them ridiculous. The British held "trial by jury" to be the best mode for obtaining justice and securing them in the possession of their property against the exercise of arbitrary power. Governor Carleton abolished the jurisdiction of the justices of the peace, some of whom were of such character and occupation that quite unfitted them for the magistracy. He introduced into the courts as much French law as possible, and in the court of common pleas left it to the option of parties in a suit to have it tried by a jury. **Confusion and dissatisfaction** arose from the mixture or conflict of laws. The governor agreed with those who held that the **remedy** for this state of things was the **restitution to the French of the whole body of their civil laws**. The chief justice and attorney-general proposed that a middle course should be taken between those who wanted, on the one hand, the civil law of England introduced, and those, on the other hand, who desired to see French law restored. They thought that some parts of French civil law might be restored, and others altered. For instance, the British did not object to the **law of inheritance**, by which the property of the parents was equally divided among the children, or to the French system of conveyancing, that is, the transferring of land from one party to another, as they considered it less expensive and more expeditious than the English mode. But they decidedly **objected to the "feudal tenure,"** especially to that condition of it which bore hard upon them in purchasing lands within a seigneurie, namely, the obligation to pay the seigneur *lods* and *vents*, which was a fine of a twelfth of the purchase money over and above the sum paid by the purchaser to the seller. The land might have been improved a hundred fold by the erection of houses and buildings. Still the seigneur had a right to demand a twelfth of its increased value. This heavy tax discouraged the improving of lands, and retarded the

growth of towns within the seigneuries. By the French law of marriage, the wife, on the death of the husband, was entitled to "dower," to one-half of the real property of which he was possessed before marriage, or might have acquired after it; she was also entitled to the right of *communauté*, or partnership, which gave her half of the personal property of her husband; if she died before him, this portion went to the children even in the lifetime of the father, or to her nearest relatives if there were no children. A man before marrying might make a contract devising in which way he wished his property to go after his death, but if he neglected to do this, the consequences were as above stated. To the British in Quebec who married in ignorance of the law, these conditions were not acceptable when they came to understand to what they were bound. As business men, the British had great objections to the French law of mortgage (*hypothèque*). Under it a man might raise money by mortgaging his land secretly, and then sell it without the purchaser knowing anything of the prior claims upon it until those who had loaned the money presented them. Sometimes the claims exceeded the sum paid for the land, and the purchaser sometimes had to abandon it. An English merchant who sold goods to a Canadian, and took security for payment on his property, was sometimes victimized when the property had been sold and the holders of secret mortgages put in their claims. This system tended to prevent British merchants who had made money in the province from investing it in land, and retarded the progress of the country. It was remedied, in after time, by the institution of offices for the registration of deeds, after long opposition from the French-Canadians.

137. The question that agitated the minds of public men in the Province between 1766 and 1774 was, "Shall Quebec be English or French?" The circumstances of the times,

and the king's strong will, decided it. The English colonies were now in a state of revolt against the king's authority. They had grown very angry at the restrictions imposed by the Imperial government on their trade, commerce, and manufactures, and very impatient of the arbitrary rule of English crown-appointed officials, and members of old colonial families; and the different religious bodies were offended at the dominance assumed by the Church of England. A spirit was swelling within the hearts of their people which made them determined to try to manage their own affairs in their own manner; to free themselves from the domination of favorites and irresponsible officials; to throw open the "portal" of place and position to men of talent and energy, to whatever family connection or religious sect they might belong; to turn their labor to the best account, to sail their ships freely the wide world over, and to trade at every port, unfettered by regulations and navigation laws. If concessions had been made to the views and feelings of the people, a violent rupture of the ties that bound the colonies to the mother country might have been prevented. But wise counsels did not prevail in the Imperial councils. It only required a spark to fire the train that would produce a great explosion.

138. In 1765 the Imperial Parliament imposed the "Stamp Act" upon the English colonies. Their legislatures and people angrily remonstrated against this exercise of power by which they were taxed without their advice or consent. The "Stamp Act" was repealed, but the Imperial Parliament formally declared its right to tax the colonies by laying light duties on glass, paper, painters' colors, and tea. Giving way again to remonstrances, Parliament repealed the duties on all the articles save tea, in order, it is said, to help the East India Company, which had a large stock on hand. When the company's ships entered the harbor of Boston, a party of its citizens, disguised as

Indians, boarded them, broke open the chests, and threw the tea into the dock; then the Imperial Parliament closed Boston port, cut off the people from commercial intercourse with the outer world, and otherwise abridged their liberties, to show its deep displeasure at this act of rebellion.

139. Eight years passed away before the Imperial Government grappled with the question of giving a constitution to the province of Quebec. The king put off fulfilling his promise. He did not like popular assemblies, and the attitude of the legislatures and people of the English colonies who were on the eve of rebellion, helped 1774 him to decide not to keep it. In 1774 a bill for the making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec was passed by the Imperial Parliament. It gave the province greatly extended boundaries, which included the territory from the coast of Labrador in the east to the Mississippi in the west, north to the sources of the rivers emptying themselves into Hudson Bay, and south to the Ohio. An arbitrary government was established, and it consisted of a governor and a council with from seventeen to twenty-three members. The Roman Catholic religion was established and the whole body of the French civil law introduced. Charles Fox and Edmund Burke in the House of Commons, and the Earl of Chatham in the House of Lords, opposed and denounced the measure, and the "city" of London petitioned against it. But George III. highly approved it. And so by the king's will Quebec was made a French province.

CHAPTER IV.

THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

140. **THE British population was deeply aggrieved over the Quebec Act.** The hope had been cherished that the king would fulfil the promise of the proclamation of 1763; but the saying now was, "put not your trust in princes." The people of the English colonies were, also, equally aggrieved. They had now entered into a perpetual bond of union for self-defence, and they looked with alarm at the establishment of a despotic government in Quebec with its greatly extended boundaries, as a threat to their liberties. That Act they declared was the last wrong of many they had received from the hands of the king. In this year war had commenced with the battle of Lexington. The Congress, which met at Philadelphia, resolved 1775 on the invasion of Canada. Their emissaries were then going through it, scattering broadsheets or circular letters inviting its people to join the standard of liberty, and inciting them to unite against the king, the common tyrant, and secretly preaching sedition. The British people were angry, disaffected, ripe for rebellion. The contagion of revolutionary principles was spreading among the mass of French Canadians, but through the influence of their clergy and *noblesse* (to whom the Quebec Act was acceptable) they were, with some exceptions, kept true to their allegiance to George III. Indeed, that contagion was wide-spread. In Nova Scotia the New England settlers on both sides of the Bay sympathized with their kinsmen who had taken the side of the revolution. Therefore those who had to maintain the king's authority in these Provinces had need of a vigilant eye and a firm hand.

141. **Ticonderoga and Crown Point were seized and an opening made for the advance of a party under General**

Schuyler on Montreal, by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu, which river was defended by the forts Chambly and St. John's. Benedict Arnold (a man who acquired a bad notoriety during the war) and his insurgent "sons of liberty" made their toilsome and difficult way by the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers to the southern bank of the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec. The numbers of the invading forces were so small, it looked as if Congress hoped to annex Canada rather by proclamations and persuasions than by force of arms. Schuyler invested the forts. Finding that St. John's was stronger than he had expected, he went to Albany for further aid, but died on the way. General Richard Montgomery, a good and brave soldier who had fought under Wolfe, then took the command. Sir Guy Carleton, who had no idea that danger was approaching the capital, rushed with a party of 800 men, chiefly Canadians, to protect Montreal. He crossed the St. Lawrence to raise the siege of St. John's, but he was defeated in his purpose and forced to recross the river to the city. Chambly, and then St. John's, fell into the rebels' hands, and Montgomery pushed on to attack Montreal, and he gave orders to the captains of his vessels to form in line below the city to intercept its garrison should it attempt to escape. That was exactly what Carleton, who had now heard that Arnold's force was threatening Quebec, had in view. A part of the garrison, in attempting to pass the line, was captured. Carleton himself, under cover of night, was rowed through the hostile vessels, and escaping many perils reached Quebec in safety. He soon restored confidence in the capital, which he placed in a state of defence, and then waited with calm assurance the attack of the enemy.

142. Outside of Quebec the invaders now met no opposition. Montgomery made his way to Point aux Trembles, eighteen miles above Quebec, where Arnold had his camp.

It was on the 1st of December that these two men met to consult on what should be done. It was a desperate resolve to take Quebec at that rigorous season, with few cannon, and a force wasted by disease and famine. Nearly a month was spent in keeping up quite an ineffective fire on the fortifications; then, in their dire extremity, the generals determined to try and take the city by night assault. It was four of the last morning of the year, black and storming, when Montgomery with his force advanced along the path under Cape Diamond and to the narrow street leading to the western gate. A barrier and battery stopped the way. With his own hands he helped to tear down the pickets, but he was struck to the ground by a random shot. The force then made a hasty retreat, and left their dead general and those who had fallen with him to be shrouded by the falling snow. On the eastern side, Arnold with his force, after crossing the St. Charles, advanced along the narrow street leading to the fortifications in face of their fire. He was struck in the leg by a shot, and borne out of the reach of further danger. Colonel Morgan and a body of Virginian riflemen rushed forward, scaled the ramparts, and made their way into the town through one of the embrasures. They kept up a fight until the gray dawn broke. Then, finding that they were surrounded and exposed to a galling fire from the houses, they surrendered.

143. The Americans maintained a blockade during the winter. Carleton remained inactive in Quebec until the opening of the navigation, when large reinforcements of British troops reached him from England. He then took the offensive. Gradually the invaders retreated out of Canada by the way they had entered it, followed by Carleton. On the 19th of October there was a naval engagement on Lake Champlain, where the Americans under Arnold were thoroughly beaten. The war then

receded from the boundaries of Canada, and we shall follow it no further.

144. Carleton did not remain long in Quebec, for he wished to have an active command in the war. He was succeeded by General Sir Frederick Haldimand, an old soldier of severe temper. Under his harsh, despotic rule, Canada passed some miserable years. The emissaries of Congress still went through the province whispering sedition and creating trouble. The expression of opinion in favor of the revolution was treated as treasonable, and the offender was cast into prison. Even the suspicion of sympathizing with the American cause subjected a man to arbitrary punishment. The mass of the *habitans* groaned under the severe duties exacted from them by the militia law, and were only kept from open rebellion by their priests, who told them that if they were to join the Americans they would make their fate worse than it was, — “jump from the frying-pan into the fire,” in fact. The British population was more than ever discontented with this arbitrary government, under which the prisons were crammed to overflowing, and the country filled with wrath, rage, fear, and discontent.

145. Through Nova Scotia, emissaries of the government of Massachusetts went, and endeavored to seduce the people from their allegiance and stir up the Indians. Some of the inhabitants of Maudslayi presented an address to the General Assembly of that State, expressing sympathy with the resolution and asking protection. But it is said that they did this merely to propitiate the government, and to save themselves from the ravages of the Indians. During the war the people dwelling by the mouth of the St. John were much harassed and plundered by rebels from Machias, who burned Fort Frederick. Twice the Indians on this river threatened to rise and carry war through the English settlements, but on both occasions they were

pacified by fair words and plenty of presents, and induced to renew their allegiance to King George. After 1779 the Indians never again threatened to make war.

CHAPTER V.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

146. THE war came to an end in 1782. The British nation had grown weary of it, and had been moved to anger at the surrender of the army under Lord Cornwallis to Washington at the siege of Yorktown (1781). The obstinate king was compelled to give way to the demand that the war should cease, to allow the revolted colonies to depart, and to acknowledge their independence. At its close the people of the United States were much exasperated against those who had fought for the king and the unity of the empire. Destitute, homeless, and persecuted, the position of the United Empire Loyalists appealed to the sympathy of the king and parliament, and called for immediate aid. It was necessary, at once, to find places of refuge for them; and thousands (30,000 in all, it is computed) were conveyed to Quebec and Nova Scotia before the final treaty of peace was signed at Paris, Sept. 3, 1783.

147. By that treaty, Quebec was much contracted. It was stripped of the region between the Mississippi in the west, and the Ohio in the south; its southern boundary was run through the middle of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes; and the St. Croix was made its boundary in the east. In after years, the question was raised, "What river was meant by the St. Croix?" and another question was, "Whether the country watered by the Arcoostook and other branches of the St. John belonged

to Great Britain or the United States?" This "disputed territory" was the cause of interminable discussions, and, nearly of a war, as will be seen. To the Americans was given the right to fish on all the banks of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the coasts and in the bays and creeks of all the British-American possessions; and this right, in after years, also, raised troublesome questions, which are not settled yet.

148. To the Loyalists who went to Quebec were granted lands west of Montreal and along the north shore of Lake Ontario. They were the pioneers of the great province which now bears the name of that inland sea. Of those who went to Nova Scotia a number settled in Halifax, about Annapolis, and at Port Roseway, where was built the town of Shelburne. In the month of May, 1783, vessels from New York bearing sufferers for the royal cause entered the harbor at the **mouth of the St. John**. Thick forests of spruce and cedar covered the heights and descended to the water's edge. Save for the fishermen's huts among the rocks right at the foot of the (Carleton) heights, and the clearing of Simonds' station beneath Fort Howe, there were few signs of life or settlement there. Two centuries and a half before, when Fort la Tour stood on the strip of land where the ruins of Fort Frederick were visible, the harbor of St. John was more lively than it was at this time. But **on the 18th of May, when the Loyalists landed**, a new era opened for it. When another 18th of May came round (and full of misery, hardship, arduous work, and political excitement the past twelve months had been) the foundation had been laid of a permanent and prospering town. Parr Town, it was at first called, in honor of the then governor of Nova Scotia. When still another 18th of May came round Parr Town was the incorporated city of St. John. Before that time — in 1784 — the country beyond the bay was erected into

the province of New Brunswick, independent of Nova Scotia, and with a government and legislative assembly of its own. Its first governor or captain-general was **Colonel Thomas Carleton**, brother of Sir Guy Carleton. The members of its first council were men who before the war had been in good social position, and men of professional eminence, some of whom during the war had held commissions in the king's army. The first General Assembly met in St. John on Feb. 8, 1786, but this was but a temporary arrangement, as Governor Carleton, not long after his first coming to the province, fixed on St. Anne's Point as a safe site for the seat of government. There, in the newly erected city of **Fredericton**, the General Assembly met for its third session on the 18th July, 1788. By this time the young province of New Brunswick had got a fair start. There were promising settlements in the eight counties into which it was at first divided, St. John's, King's, Queen's, Charlotte's, Sunbury, York, Westmoreland and Northumberland. In St. John a commencement had been made of its ship-building industry; its spar-cutting and lumbering operations were increasing, and its commerce extending, and a final conquest had been made over the barbarism which had so long reigned over the country north of the Bay, when in the hands of the French and Indians.

149. In 1787, Sir Guy Carleton, then **Lord Dorchester**, was appointed governor-general of Quebec and all the British North American provinces, and the captains-general of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were then called lieutenant-governors.

150. Lord Dorchester was much liked, both by the French Canadians and the Loyalists who now formed the greater part of the British population of Quebec. But it was exceedingly difficult to unite the new elements of the population in harmony under one govern-

ment, so strong was the antagonism of the races. To allay the strong discontent of the British with the French laws, trial by jury in civil cases was introduced and the act of *habeas corpus* restored, and reports on the state of education, the administration of justice and commerce, were drawn up for the information of British parliament in legislating upon the future government of the province. The great country west of Montreal was divided into the four districts of Lunenburg, Hesse, Nassau and Mecklenburg. The population was chiefly British. A number of Americans crossed the line to settle.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL ACT OF 1791.

151. As the years went on the difficulty of governing the province of Quebec with its two populations increased. To put an end to that difficulty, if possible, the British Parliament passed the Constitutional Act, which divided the country into two provinces — Upper and Lower Canada — the river Ottawa being made the line of division between them. Upper Canada was constituted a British province, with the whole body of British law. Lower Canada remained French — the feudal tenure and French civil law were retained. But into both the provinces the criminal law of England and the *habeas corpus* act were introduced. In each province a legislature, consisting of governor, legislative council, and legislative assembly, was established. Provision was made for the support of a Protestant clergy, by reserving for the purpose a seventh of the land in the townships, as the divisions of the lands granted by government were called. The introduction of representative institutions was cer-

tainly an improvement over the arbitrary council, but the division caused jealousies to spring up between the people of the two provinces. The British of Upper Canada were not happy. They were situated above the point of navigation in the St. Lawrence for large vessels, and they could not import or export goods directly. All imports and exports had to be entered at the ports of Montreal or Quebec, and they were subject to such duties as the legislature of Lower Canada might lay upon them. Neither were the British in Lower Canada happy — for they found themselves in the old position, subject to French laws, which they detested. The French Canadians ought to have been happy, and in the main they were pretty content, but the educated class, those who aspired to take part in public business, were as discontented as ever. To show the ground of their discontent it is necessary to explain the constitution of the provinces. The governor was appointed by the Crown, and was responsible to it, and he carried out the instructions of the imperial government, which were transmitted to him in despatches from the colonial office in Downing Street. The governor had a body of advisers, called the Executive Council, composed of judges and salaried officials, who were appointed by the Crown, and held their seats for life. Some of them had also seats in the Legislative Council, the members of which were mostly place-holders, and they also held their seats for life. In Lower Canada these seats of power, honor, and emolument were filled by influential members of the British minority in so great a proportion that the French Canadians were as good as excluded. The Legislative Assembly was composed of representatives of the people, who were elected to serve a certain term. That term was fixed for four years. But before it had expired the governor might exercise the prerogative vested in him, and, acting at his own discretion, dissolve the Assembly or House. The

Assembly, in conjunction with the Legislative Council, made the laws, but before they went into operation as acts the consent of the governor was necessary. The Assembly had power to raise a revenue for the support of roads, bridges, schools, and other public services.

152. In Lower Canada the legislature met for the first time, in Quebec, on the 17th of December. Colonel Alured Clarke was then governor. In the popular branch the British had fifteen representatives, the French Canadians thirty-five. M. Panet, a French Canadian, was appointed "Speaker," the officer who presides over the deliberations of the Assembly. A rule was passed, not without opposition from the British representatives, prescribing the use of the English and French languages in debate, and in recording the proceedings of the Assembly in its journals. That rule was never broken, and it did much to strengthen French nationality.

153. In Upper Canada the legislature met for the first time in Newark, on the Niagara River. Colonel John Graves Simcoe, a Loyalist, who had commanded the Virginian Rangers in the Revolutionary War, was governor. The Legislative Council was composed of seven members, and in the Assembly there were sixteen representatives. The foundation of the constitution was laid by the enactment of the English criminal and civil law. The names of the four districts into which the province was divided were changed into Western, Eastern, Home, and Midland. And York (now Toronto), on the northwestern shore of Lake Ontario, was chosen as the site for the seat of government. The legislature held its first session there in 1798.

154. France was now passing through the great revolution by which its old order of government was completely overturned. Its government was then sending forth armies to do battle with the armies of the monarchs of Europe. It was at war with Great Britain; a war which was, with

a short break, to last for over twenty years. At first the United States threatened to join France, for the American people were still bitter against Great Britain — they sympathized with the revolution — but the President, George Washington, used all his great influence to defeat such a movement. Instead of entering upon war, the United States entered into a treaty of amity and commerce with Great Britain. The war caused some excitement in the Canadas. Emissaries of the government of 1794 France went among the French-Canadian *habitans* and contrasted the misery of living under crowned tyrants with the happiness of republican liberty and equality. But the mass of the people hearkened to the admonitions of their priests who warned them against “these disseminators of false principles.” They were content and had no quarrel with George III. The French and British populations were divided, and were continually quarrelling, but they were united in their loyalty to “the best of kings.”

CHAPTER VII.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

155. WHEN the Loyalists settled in Nova Scotia they did not, at first, agree very well with “the old inhabitants.” These, no doubt, were a little jealous of the newcomers, who were in high favor with the king, and many of whom were men of remarkable talent, and fitted to take the lead in society. Two Loyalist lawyers, who were members of the Assembly, raised a political excitement, and caused old Governor Parr much trouble by impeaching two judges for maladministration of justice, and demanding their removal from office. They did not succeed. One of the judges was a member of the Executive Council,

and, as such, advised the governor to exculpate him and his brother judge. The governor acted on the advice, and the British government approved of his action. But this incident caused people to say that it was wrong for judges to be members of the government and legislature. That principle is acknowledged now, but it was not a hundred years ago. When Parr died, in 1791, he was succeeded by Sir John Wentworth, who was governor for sixteen years. He was an accomplished man, and amiable in private life, but people outside his own circle did not find him so very amiable. In government he was a great admirer of things as they were, and hated free debates in the General Assembly and meetings of the people to discuss grievances. The times were revolutionary, and such proceedings foreboded revolution to his mind. He was a staunch upholder of the Church of England, and a patron of King's College, Windsor, which was endowed by the Crown and the Province, and from which students of all other denominations were excluded by religious tests. He had all the good and the intolerant qualities of the Tory governor of the old school. But he desired, according to his light, to promote the prosperity and happiness of the people of Nova Scotia, and he was proud of the resources of the province. In the disputes between the Council and Assembly, on such questions as the appropriation of the public money for roads and bridges to open up the country for settlement, he supported the Council, who rejected measures passed by the Assembly for that purpose; and he made the leader of the popular party, Tonge, feel his resentment.

156. Nova Scotia more than the other provinces felt the effects of the war with France, and quite a martial spirit was aroused among the people. Halifax was a very stirring and gay place in these years of war, and its stir and gayety were increased when a son of King George, the

Duke of Kent (father of Queen Victoria) made it his headquarters. He was commander of the forces, and was a strict disciplinarian. His favorite residence was "Prince's Lodge" on Bedford Basin, which was the scene of many festivities. In his honor the island of St. John was named **Prince Edward** in 1799, the year before he left Nova Scotia forever.

157. Colonel Thomas Carleton was governor of **New Brunswick** for the long term of twenty years. During that time its population increased considerably. Its ship-building, from insignificant beginnings, grew to be an industry of considerable magnitude. Its forests were its chief resource, and the lumber trade flourished, protected by a heavy duty on Baltic timber, imposed by the paternal British government. During that time there was much political excitement which tended to retard rather than to advance the welfare of the province. From the beginning of their existence to the present time there never has been, indeed, any want of it, in any of the provinces. The Governor and the Council came into constant collision with the General Assembly, chiefly on the question of the appropriation of the revenues. The members of the popular branch voted themselves daily pay during the session, and on the council refusing to pass the bill containing the vote, they tacked it to the bill that included all the votes of money passed during the session. When the council refused to pass this double bill, supplies were stopped, and the people had no money for their roads, bridges, and schools. At one time the council held out for three years against passing it, but it had to give way at last and allow the members of the lower branch to take their pay.

158. After Colonel Carleton left **New Brunswick** the senior members of council administered the government, and afterwards military officers in rapid suc-

cession held the office. About this time there was a very bad feeling between the United States and Great Britain, and the government of the latter country had reason to anticipate the outbreak of war. Military men were appointed to supersede the civil governors. Wentworth, in Nova Scotia, gave way to Sir George Prevost, and Mr. Dunn, in Lower Canada, to Sir James Craig.

159. Sir James Craig had a very uneasy time of it, and he was not the sort of man to deal properly with the difficulties he had to encounter. He was an old, choleric and peevish soldier, and, it is said, he listened to bad counsel. Up to this time the Executive Council had got on pretty well with the Assembly, as it had in it a majority on its side. But that happy state of things passed away, and the two bodies came into violent collision. As war was threatening, Governor Craig advised the Assembly
1809 to provide means to place the province in a state of defence, and also to appropriate money to meet the expenses of the government. The Assembly would not attend to this business, but passed resolutions disqualifying judges from holding seats in the popular branch. The Governor in a rage dissolved the House, but the new House was quite as intractable. It passed a resolution to expel a certain Judge Deboune, and again the governor in a rage dissolved it for its insolent disregard of his advice. The members boasted that they would all be returned again. During the general election the country was thrown into a great state of excitement by the violent acts of the governor, who was enraged at the slanderous reports which were spread among the *habitans* to make him odious and to cause them to vote for their former representatives. He had six of the most prominent members of the late House put in jail, and by his orders the office of the "Canadien" newspaper was gutted and the printer imprisoned. People now said

ironically that they were living under a "reign of terror." The new House that met was in fact the old one, but its temper was a little subdued. The governor, acting on instructions from Downing Street, gave his assent to the bill disqualifying the judge, and the House proceeded quietly to do the business of the country. After a storm there always comes a calm. After that session, Sir James Craig left the country, and he was succeeded by Sir George Prevost who did much to allay for a time the jealousy and discontent of the French-Canadian party,—the real cause of much of the troubles, by appointing one or two of them to seats in the Executive Council. 1811

CHAPTER VIII.

WAR.

160. FOR several years before 1812 a hostile feeling had been growing up in the United States against Great Britain; but that feeling was not so bitter in the north as in the south. Indeed, it was said that the people of the New England States were much in sympathy with England in its hostility to France. So far was this believed that old Sir James Craig took upon himself, without the authority or even knowledge of the British government, to send an agent, one Henry, to ascertain if that sympathy would go so far as to cause these States to withdraw from the Union. The agent was dissatisfied with the reward given him, and he sold letters disclosing the secrets of his mission to President Madison.

161. One great cause of offence against Great Britain was "the right of search," which meant that British men-of-war would stop American vessels on the high seas, and

their armed parties would board them and search for sailors who were, or were suspected to be, deserters from the royal navy, and forcibly drag them away. The United States government put forth angry orders closing all American ports against British vessels, and interdicting all commercial intercourse with Great Britain. About the same time Napoleon, Emperor of the French, had issued very similar decrees, dated from Berlin, and the British government, in retaliation, had passed orders in council prohibiting all commerce with France and the United States. The States and France were the greatest sufferers by these "non-intercourse" decrees. Under them smuggling flourished, and many in Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick carried on a very profitable contraband trade with the people of the United States.

162. The Emperor Napoleon was then at the summit of his glory, and was making preparations to invade Russia. Great Britain was the power which had always withstood him, and he was pleased that the United States government, at his instigation, should strike a blow at her. Early
1812 in the year President Madison submitted Henry's letters to Congress, which seemed to implicate the British government in an attempt to seduce the people of some of the eastern States from their allegiance. These letters, copies of which were freely circulated throughout the country, made Congress and people very indignant, as the President anticipated they would. Then followed the declaration of war, June 18th. When it was known in Boston, flags were hoisted half-mast on the vessels in the harbor, the sign of death or calamity.

163. President Madison and the war party proposed to conquer Canada, and they imagined that it would be an easy conquest. They had an idea that the French-Canadians were disaffected, and that many would join the invading armies; but they reckoned without their host.

The French-Canadians, on the contrary, with few exceptions, showed the very best spirit. In the hour of danger they forgot all their political discontents, and their gallant chasseurs and voltigeurs were shoulder to shoulder with the British-Canadian volunteers and fencibles. Nor were the Mohawks and other domiciled Indians backward in supporting their white brothers. It was fortunate that a stout spirit prevailed, for the task of defending their country was thrown chiefly on the militia of the Canadas. All along the extended line, open to invasion from Quebec to York, there were only forty-five hundred regular British troops, and the British government could not send out more, as they required all the men they had for the war in Europe.

164. The plan of the American campaign was to invade Canada from Detroit, the Niagara River, and by Lake Champlain. The British scored the first success in the war. Captain Roberts, with a small party, captured Michillimackinac, an important American fur station. General Hull, Governor of Michigan, with twenty-five hundred troops, crossed over from Detroit to Sandwich and put forth a bombastic proclamation to frighten the inhabitants into submission. As long as there was no force to face him he got on very well, and ravaged the country as far as Moravia Village on the Thames. But when, in advancing on Amherstburg, he was checked at the River Canard, and when he heard that Captain Roberts was descending on his rear, he grew uneasy; and uneasier still he grew when gallant Sir Isaac Brock (Governor of Upper Canada) appeared to confront him. On the first news of the invasion of the western peninsula Brock had hurried, with such force as he could collect, by way of the river Niagara and Lake Erie, to drive the invaders thence. Hull retreated across the river to Detroit, followed by Brock, and, rather than stand an attack, surrendered with twenty-

three hundred men. This was a grand success for Canada, and put the Michigan territory into the possession of the British.

165. On the Niagara frontier an American army of superior numbers, from Fort Niagara to Buffalo, confronted a British force on the line between Fort George and Fort Erie. Before dawn, on the 18th of September, twelve hundred Americans, in two divisions, under General Wadsworth, crossed from Lewiston to Queenston, and drove the British from the heights. Aroused by the sound of cannonade, General Brock hurried from Fort George, in the gray light, to Queenston, leaving General Sheaffe to follow him with reinforcements. He rallied his troops and led an attack to retake the heights, but fell mortally wounded as he was cheering on the volunteers of York. There was a dismal pause until General Sheaffe arrived, with eight hundred men, and then the attack was renewed, and, after a spirited but short resistance, the Americans were driven from or forced to surrender on the heights. In after years a monument was there raised in memory of the gallant Brock.

166. The fortune of war continued to be on the side of Canada. Early in November, United States Commodore Chauncey, with five vessels, made an unsuccessful attack on Kingston. A few days afterwards General Dearborn, at the head of "the army of the north," ten thousand strong, advanced from Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, and crossed the boundary line to La Prairie, where the French-Canadian militia were posted, eager to beat the invaders back. But the American militia were not at all eager to advance; and after some aimless skirmishings the army retreated across the line, and went into winter quarters. Then Major-General Smyth, commander of the army on the Niagara frontier, burning with desire to retrieve the disasters of the campaign, resolved to invade and conquer

Canada off-hand, but the expedition was so shockingly mismanaged that a mutiny broke out, and the general had to fly to save his life from the exasperated soldiers, who blamed his blustering incapacity for the failure. While the Americans, however, were unsuccessful on land, they gained some victories at sea, which soothed their wounded pride, and enraged the British, who were unaccustomed to defeat on their native element.

167. The United States government saw the importance of having a naval superiority on the Lakes Ontario and Erie, and they had a number of large, rough, serviceable war vessels built in their ports there. It would have been better if the British government had ordered a number of such vessels to be run up speedily instead of having a few carefully finished. If they had done so they might have retained the naval command of the lakes and changed the aspect of the war.

168. The people of Michigan and Ohio were very impatient at the presence of the British on their soil, and called on their generals to drive Colonel Proctor out ¹⁸¹³ of Detroit. About the middle of January General Winchester, with a thousand men, crossed from Sandusky, and, landing, advanced upon Frenchtown, and drove its garrison back on Brownston. There Colonel Proctor had gathered a motley militia force and a swarm of Indians. In the dark hours of the morning he steadily advanced on Frenchtown, and surprised the Americans at break of day. After a short but brisk fight, with loss to both sides, Proctor sent word that if the Americans resisted any longer he would be unable to restrain the Indians; whereupon they surrendered. But Proctor was unable to prevent his savage allies from perpetrating some shocking cruelties. President Madison, in his message to Congress, referred indignantly to them, and threw the blame on the British. He had, no doubt, cause for indignation, but the British could

not help employing the Indians, who would not have remained quiet; and if they had been under no control they would have run riot in torture and murder. It was all very fine for the President to complain, but if he had been determined he could have prevented the war, which brought many inevitable horrors in its train. When spring opened, some reinforcements arrived in Quebec from England. British men-of-war and privateers blockaded American ports, and preyed on American merchantmen. The coasts of the maritime provinces were open to the attack of American and French cruisers, but the war was not brought home to them. Their legislatures voted money to aid Canada, and their seamen volunteered to fight on the lakes. The New Brunswick 104th Regiment was despatched to the seat of war. Some of its companies went by water, but the others started from Fredericton in midwinter, and made their way through the wilderness to Quebec on snow-shoes, a march that is still spoken of as one of the remarkable incidents of the war.

169. As yet the Americans had gained no advantage by land. Towards the end of April a combined naval and military expedition under General Dearborn and Commodore Chauncey attacked York. General Sheaffe, administrator of the government, unable to hold it, retired with his troops towards Kingston, and left the ignominious task of surrendering it to a militia colonel. The Americans took a large quantity of valuable stores, but did not hold the place.

170. The American fleet under Commodore Chauncey, about a month afterwards, bombarded Fort George, which was held by Colonel Vincent and a thousand British soldiers. A large force was landed to carry the place by assault. Vincent, unable to hold the fort in face of the overpowering fire from the ships, withdrew (March 27) to Queenston, and, calling the other garrisons from Chippewa

and Erie, retreated to Burlington Heights at the head of Lake Ontario. The day after, Sir George Prevost sailed from Kingston with a flotilla under Sir James Yeo, leaving a considerable military force, of which the 104th formed a part, to attack **Sackett's Harbor**. The intention was to take the place by surprise under cover of night, but the boats with the attacking party, owing to the strong current, did not get into position opposite the point fixed for the landing before daylight, and then the foe was on the alert. The British drove the Americans out of the woods into their fort and blockhouse, and then retired out of reach of fire from their guns until their own artillery was landed. Prevost thought that no further advantage could be gained, and ordered a retreat. The British lost 206 men, in all, in this futile affair, and they also lost confidence in their general.

171. On the 1st of June stout Captain Lawrence sailed out of Boston harbor with the "**Chesapeake**" to take up the challenge sent him by gallant Captain Broke of H. M. S. "**Shannon**." In the wake of the American frigate sailed a pleasure party, to see the fight and share the victory. The British tars stood in silence at their guns as the "**Chesapeake**" sailed proudly near. Then came the roar of the broadsides, and the grappling together of the ships, and the wild cheers of the British tars as they boarded, and the horrid tumult of the fight. "Don't give up the ship," said Lawrence as he fell, but in a few minutes the British ensign was floating above the "stars and stripes." The Sunday after the fight, citizens of Halifax saw the "**Shannon**" sail with the "**Chesapeake**," a prize, into the harbor, and those who boarded them were horrified at the evidences of the bloody contest on their decks.

172. A few days after this "glorious victory" 3,500 Americans, under Brigadier-Generals Chandler and Winder, advanced from their camp at **Forty Mile Creek** to attack Vin-

cent at Burlington Heights. They rested at Stony Creek, a few miles off. At midnight a party of British, under Lieutenant-Colonel John Harvey, burst into their camp, and attacked them with the bayonet, and drove them out to the surrounding heights. The British then withdrew, with the two American generals and one hundred men prisoners, to Burlington. The Americans were then compelled to retreat to Fort George. Colonel Vincent then grew bold, and extended his line from Burlington Heights to Queenston, and cut off supplies from Fort George and beleaguered General Dearborn. During the summer there were naval engagements on the lakes, and attacks and counter-attacks on American and Canadian strong places, but no advantage was gained by either side; nothing decisive was done.

CHAPTER IX.

CONCLUSION OF THE WAR.

173. DURING the summer the Americans made preparations to force the British to abandon their hold on
1818 the Michigan territory, and to contest their naval superiority on lakes Ontario and Erie. Colonel Proctor had been able to hold his own in the west and that was all. On May 1st he, with Tecumseh, the famous Shawnee chief, and two thousand men, laid siege to Fort Meigs at the foot of the rapids of the Miami River. His cannon made no impression upon it, but he repulsed with great slaughter a sortie made by its garrison and a body of Kentucky and Ohio volunteers. As he was then deserted by his fickle allies, the Indians, who formed the greater part of his force, he could do nothing but return to Sandwich. By September a large American army was assembled in Michigan under General Harrison, and Commodore Perry

was in Putin Bay, the western extremity of Lake Erie. On the 10th six British sail were discovered bearing down, and Perry gave orders to weigh anchor and hoist the signal of battle. In the outset his flagship, the "Lawrence" (which carried a flag with the words "Don't give up the ship"), was disabled, and he was forced to leave it, and in the midst of the fight was rowed to another ship, the "Detroit." The British flagship was made a complete wreck, and the crew of its consort, the "Queen," struck its colors after the captain was killed, and the vessel became unmanageable. Perry then with his whole fleet passed between the British ships, which were overpowered by his close and heavy fire. Perry sent word to the expectant Harrison, "We have met the enemy and they are ours." Harrison then moved his army and crossed the river. Procter abandoned Detroit and Amherstburg after destroying their principal buildings, and hastily retreated with Tecumseh and his braves, followed by a vastly superior American force up the River Thames to Moravia Village. There he made a stand, and there his ranks were completely broken by the fierce onsets of the Kentuckians. Tecumseh was slain. Those who were not killed or captured dispersed, or made their way to Burlington Heights.

174. The situation was now very critical for the Canadians. In all the west the only British force was that at Burlington Heights; the upper district of Upper Canada was in the hands of Harrison; the Americans held the command of the lakes, and had two large armies, one on the Niagara frontier under General Wilkinson, the other at Plattsburg under General Hampton.

175. Wilkinson and Hampton were instructed to co-operate in an attack on Montreal. On October 21st General Hampton, with 7,000 men, crossed the boundary line, and in two divisions this force advanced up both banks of the

Chateauguay. He was with the division that took the northern bank through a thickly wooded and hilly country. In his way there stood a strong breastwork of felled trees, behind which 300 voltigeurs under **Colonel La Sala-berry** were posted, and from which they could securely shoot down his men. He could not prevail over his raw militiamen to attack this formidable obstruction. They preferred to crouch in the woods and keep up a fire which did more harm to themselves than the foe; and the woods were all the time ringing with bugle-calls, and in their fear they imagined that the Canadians were in great force and mustering to surround them. They lost heart. The division which advanced by the southern bank was driven back by a body of Chateauguay chasseurs. So General Hampton led his dispirited army across the boundary line to its camp at Plattsburg.

176. It was November before **General Wilkinson**, with a force of 10,000 men in bateaux, passed Kingston in his descent on Montreal. From that place he was followed by **Colonel Morrison** and 800 British troops, and from the head of the Long Sault this corps of observation followed the Americans on land. When off **Williamsburg**, **Wilkinson**, who was annoyed at being followed by this small body, told one of his brigadier-generals (**Boyd**) to land with a force and "brush" it away. 3,500 Americans with artillery faced the British, drawn up in line on a field on "**Chrysler's farm**," on the afternoon of the 12th. For two hours the battle raged, the Americans were unable to break the red ranks, and before the firm advance and steady fire of the British they wavered and fell back with a loss of 339 men. **Wilkinson** was terribly annoyed to see that the "brush" had fallen out of **Boyd's** hands, his troops retreating hastily to their boats, and making for the southern bank of the St. Lawrence. He was worse annoyed, on reaching **Lake St. Francis**, to learn that

Hampton and his army were not at St. Regis, where they had agreed to unite their troops for the advance on Montreal. In disgust he withdrew his troops to French Mills on Salmon River.

177. In December there was terrible work on the Niagara frontier. United States General McClure abandoned Fort George on the approach of Colonel Murray and a British force, and before crossing to Fort Niagara left the town of Newark in flames. The British took that fort and laid waste the country down to Buffalo.

178. The war was not resumed in earnest until the middle of the year. The people of the Eastern States were intensely dissatisfied with it, while the Canadians, 1814 though they had suffered much in person and property, were in good spirits and courage, and resolved to defend their country to the last.

179. General Wilkinson toward the end of March made an attempt to advance on Montreal, but showed himself so feeble a general that he was superseded by General Izzard. Early in May General Drummond stormed and burned the shipping in Oswego, the most important American naval depot on Lake Ontario. In June several British regiments arrived in Quebec, the number of British ships was increased on the American coasts, and a blockade proclaimed from Georgia to Maine. In the course of the summer Moose Island and Eastport, Castine and Bangor, were taken, Baltimore was scared, Alexandria compelled to capitulate, and Washington captured and its Capitol burned. There being then a pause in the war in Europe, the British government could throw more strength into the war in America.

180. There was hot work on the Niagara frontier in July. On the 3rd General Brown with 600 men crossed the river and captured Fort Erie, and advanced to Fort Chippewa. General Riall with 1,800 men, of whom 800

were militia and Indians, tried to stop Brown, but was himself forced to withdraw to Niagara, where he made a stand. Brown's force remained at Chippewa. A fortnight afterwards Riall advanced towards the Falls, but was driven up the hill at **Lundy's Lane**, and on to the road at Beaver Dams, by the Americans. In the nick of time General Drummond arrived from Fort George at six in the evening (24th) and stayed the retreat. A close and fierce encounter ensued. The Americans made several desperate efforts to gain possession of the height, but were driven down. After three hours both sides paused and were reinforced. Again loud and furious rose the din of battle, and at any lull the solemn thunder of the mighty cataract boomed in. At midnight the Americans desisted and retreated hastily to Chippewa, and next day to Erie. General Drummond invested the fort, and on August 15th his troops assaulted it, but suffered terribly from the explosion of a powder magazine after they had entered it. A month afterwards the Americans made a sortie on the British camp, which was repulsed with great slaughter on both sides. The Americans finally evacuated, after demolishing the fort, on November 5th.

161. In September Sir George Prevost, with the finest force that ever had assembled during the war, invaded the State of New York, and advanced to **Plattsburg**, where, on an elevated ridge on the southern bank of the Saranac, the Americans were strongly posted. He ordered Captain Downie, who commanded the naval squadron on Lake Champlain, to attack the American fleet in the Bay of Plattsburg. Downie was wounded and most of his ships captured, whereon Sir George ordered the abandonment of the attack on the enemy's entrenchments, and a retreat, which was made so hastily that sick and wounded, and much war material, were left behind. The Peninsular veterans, who had fought and vanquished Napoleon's

finest troops, were enraged at the disgrace cast upon them. Serious charges were afterwards made against Sir George, and he was recalled, but died on his way to England.

182. In the meantime peace commissioners had assembled at Ghent, and the final treaty, which provided for a firm and comprehensive peace, was ratified December 24th. Before it was known in Canada and the United States, the British suffered a bloody defeat at New Orleans January 8th. The peace was hailed with wild delight in the eastern States, and with great joy in Canada, 1815 whose people had reason to be proud of the part they had taken in the war.

CHAPTER X.

BEGINNING OF POLITICAL TROUBLES.

183. IN Lower Canada, after the war, there was a lull in the disputes between the upper and lower branches of the legislature, the Council and Assembly. But it was not very long until they were at variance again. The expenses of the civil government had increased, and the revenue was insufficient to meet them; and the governor-general, Sir John Coke Sherbrooke, called on the Assembly to make good the deficiency. At first it voted £60,000 for the purpose, but it refused to make that appropriation permanent.

184. The Revenue of Lower Canada was raised from three sources. By the act of 1774 (passed the same year as the Quebec Act, and not repealed after the passing of the Constitutional Act, 1791), the Imperial Government imposed duties on rum, brandy, and spirits, and applied the money to defray the expenses of its civil government; they also raised a revenue from the sale of lands and lease of mines,

i.e., the casual and territorial revenue; and another revenue was raised from duties imposed by the Assembly on articles imported into the province. The governor-general maintained that the Assembly had no right to appropriate the money raised under the act of 1774, or from the casual and territorial revenue. The Assembly held that it had the right to appropriate the money raised from all the three sources; the Assembly had made the act raising a revenue from duties on articles imported into the province permanent. In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick the Assemblies had made the revenue acts annual, so that on any disagreement with the Council they could stop the supplies; that is, refuse to vote the money necessary to sustain the civil government.

185. During the brief administration of the Duke of Richmond, the Council and Assembly had a very serious quarrel. The governor-general called on the Assembly to vote £16,000 in addition to the £60,000, and the Assembly insisted on examining into the details of the expenses and cutting down some of the items. The governor-general dissolved the House, but he did not meet the new one. While on a tour on the Ottawa River he was bitten by a fox and died in great agony. He was temporarily succeeded by his son-in-law, Sir Peregrine Maitland, governor of Upper Canada, who made the Assembly angry by acts it considered arbitrary and irregular. They never met to quarrel again after the first session, for in 1820 the aged and sorely afflicted king, George III., died, and the Assembly was dissolved, as is the custom with all Assemblies on the death of the monarch.

186. A new governor-general met the new House. The
1820 Earl of Dalhousie was a man of fine manners and great accomplishments, but he was proud and a rigid upholder of the prerogative of the Crown. From his time the contention between the Council and Assembly

grew more bitter, and the feeling of animosity between the French-Canadian majority and the British minority stronger. He called on the Assembly to make the Appropriation Bill — the bill detailing the manner in which the revenue should be expended — permanent, but it refused, whereon the earl, on advice of his Council, drew on the money raised by the permanent revenue act and which was in the hands of the receiver-general.

187. A proposal was made by his Council to allow holders of land under feudal tenure, to change the tenure to that of "free and common socage." Some of the members of his Council were in favor of making Lower Canada British, and a scheme of union between Lower and Upper Canada was proposed, which, if adopted, would have banished the French language from the legislature and French law from the province.

188. In Upper Canada there were causes of dissatisfaction. Power, there, was centred in the hands of one class, the influential Loyalists. They held all the seats in the Executive and Legislative Councils, and all the offices which had control of the lands and the finances. Their adherents filled the Assembly, and nearly all the commerce was in their hands. They were opposed to giving the children of the people education, to allowing the people freedom of meeting in public, and to granting to the press the liberty of criticising the acts of the government. They were, in short, an oligarchy, and it was called the "Family Compact." The members of it belonged to the Church of England which was recognized by law. They looked upon it as the state church, and the position of superiority which its clergy and members assumed aroused the jealousy and anger of the other sects. They claimed sole right to the "Clergy Reserves" the seventh of the granted lands in the townships set apart for the support of a Protestant clergy. In 1820 a clergy corporation was estab-

lished by royal charter to manage the sale of the lands and collect the rents.

189. Great complaint was made against the management of the Crown lands. And similar complaint was made in all the provinces. Exclusive grants of land were given gratuitously to favorites, executive councillors, and other officials. These grants were allowed to remain in a wilderness state, and where they lay between settled districts they obstructed their progress. This evil was early seen, and royal instructions were given not to grant more than twelve hundred acres to any single individual. But the regulation was systematically evaded in the Canadas, and it was not difficult for one individual to obtain a grant of thousands of acres. While large grants were lavishly given away to favorites, the poor militiamen could not get the small grants the Prince Regent (George IV.) wished them to receive as a recognition of their services in the war of 1812-14. Difficulties were thrown in the way of their obtaining them, and when they did obtain them, they were often in so inconvenient a locality and so unfit for settlement, that the angry militiamen in disgust parted with them for the merest trifle.

190. The Canada Land Company was formed in London to turn the wilderness lands of Upper Canada to account, in 1826. It proposed to purchase all the Crown and Clergy reserves. As the "Clergy Corporation" objected to the price offered as too low, the company, in place of the clergy reserves, obtained a million acres in the Huron country. For 3,300,000 acres in all, the company agreed to pay £350,000 sterling (about \$1,700,000) in sixteen annual instalments, and to spend money in opening up roads. The money received from the company was used to make good the deficit on the revenue, and to help to defray the expenses of the civil government.

191. Upper Canada was making great advances in pop-

ulation and wealth, and its people felt that they were in thralldom to Lower Canada. Its commerce, as has been said, was controlled by the lower province, as there was no port of entry above Montreal, and as the duties for purposes of revenue were imposed by its legislature. These duties were distributed, at first, in the proportion of one-eighth, afterwards of one-fifth, to the upper province, and the people complained that they did not receive justice.

192. A union of the two provinces was proposed by the Imperial Government as the best means of 1824 remedying the grievances and complaints. The scheme was looked upon with favor by the merchant class of Upper Canada and the British population of the townships of Lower Canada, but it was bitterly denounced by the French-Canadians as an insulting measure and as designed to obliterate their nationality. It was withdrawn, and the "Canadian Trade Act" was passed by the Imperial Government, which imposed certain duties for the purpose of regulating commerce and raising a revenue, and appointing commissioners to distribute the custom duties between the two provinces. The *Canada Tenures Act* was afterwards passed, which gave holders of lands under feudal tenure the option to change that tenure to that of "free and common socage," and to establish the operation of English law over them.

193. The disputes in the legislature of Lower Canada grew warmer. In 1824 the Assembly had a just cause of complaint against the government. The receiver-general, Sir John Caldwell, failed, and he could give no account of £96,000 (\$384,000) of the money of the province which had passed through his hands. Sir John, though a convicted defaulter, still held his seat in the Executive Council. He could not be removed by any action of the Assembly; for he was not responsible to them for his acts. It

was said that if the receiver-general had been obliged to submit annually to the Assembly a full and explicit statement of the financial condition of the province, no such loss could have occurred.

194. The Earl of Dalhousie would concede nothing to the Assembly, and he brought things to a crisis. He denied the right of the Assembly to dispose of the Crown revenues; he called upon it to make permanent provision for the judges and other officials, and, without its sanction, drew on the receiver-general to pay these salaries, and he showed himself personally hostile to some of the leading men of the Assembly. After a general election he refused to recognize M. Louis Papineau, the French-Canadian leader, who had been chosen speaker of the Assembly, and dissolved the house. Legislation was then at an end, the Constitution of 1791 was suspended. The people held excited meetings, and petitions to the king and parliament were drawn up, recounting their grievances and praying for the recall of the proud earl. Agents were appointed to present them.

CHAPTER XI.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

125. Nova Scotia during the long war—1792 to 1814—had great prosperity. Halifax, the chief British naval station in America, increased rapidly in population and wealth. The prosperity was mainly caused by large naval and military expenditures which promoted trade and brought many people to inhabit the city. When the war came to an end, and Halifax was no longer the naval station, the extraordinary expenditures ceased, and its

prosperity declined. The whole province felt the effect of the change. In the city, trade languished, many of the inhabitants left it, and hundreds of workmen were thrown out of employment. The Earl of Dalhousie was governor of the province from 1816 until he went to Canada in 1820. During his term the Council and Assembly did not quarrel very much; attention was given to the improvement of the province. The letters of "Agricola" (Mr. John Young) awakened an interest in agriculture, which had been much neglected. Something was done for education; a parish school system was inaugurated, and Pictou Academy and Dalhousie College were founded, but the people did not support them.

196. On leaving the province, the Earl of Dalhousie was presented with £1,000 to buy a sword and star. But he declined this testimonial of respect from the Assembly because that body had not shown proper respect to the Council, and had neglected to carry out suggestions he had made for the improvement of the militia and road service. Besides, the province was too poor to make costly gifts.

197. *Cape Breton*, which had been a separate government since 1784, was, in 1820. October 19, formally
1820
incorporated with Nova Scotia.

198. *New Brunswick* had a regularly commissioned governor in 1818, Major-General Sir George Tracy Smythe. During his time the Legislative Council and Assembly quarrelled over the old bone of contention, the control of the revenue, and there were two dissolutions, one (in 1820) consequent on the death of George III. Governor Smythe died in the midst of the session of 1823. Until the regularly appointed governor arrived, the government was administered by the president of the Council. Hon. Christopher Billop, senior executive councillor, issued his proclamation as president, but being old and infirm, he was superseded by Hon. Ward Chipman. He met the legis-

lature in January, 1824, but he died on the 9th of February. Hon. James Murray Bliss then acted as president until the arrival in August of the new governor.

199. Sir Howard Douglas was a man distinguished in arms and letters. He took a fatherly interest in the advancement of the province. He was of opinion that far too much attention was given to lumbering, and far too little to the cultivation of the soil. He encouraged the people to pursue a better system of agriculture and of road-making; the roads then went up hill and down dale, and were not well adapted for traffic or travel. Through his influence King's College (University of New Brunswick) was established and opened on Jan. 1, 1829; on that occasion he founded the Douglas gold medal "to remain as an incentive to virtue and learning, and as a permanent token of his regard and good wishes."

200. A memorable but disastrous event occurred in 1825. The summer of that year was very hot and dry all over the American continent. In New Brunswick the long drought was painfully felt; there were several fires throughout the province. On the 1st of October, fire swept over the country between the Nashwaak and the Miramichi, and north to the Bay Chaleur. In Miramichi towards evening a pitchy darkness overspread the sky, through which shot tongues of fire; then a hurricane of flame burst with a fearful roar, and rushed over Newcastle and Douglastown, destroying churches, and houses, and ships upon the stocks. The people flew to the river for safety, and even wild animals crept to its banks. Its lurid waters were tossed about in wildest commotion, and vessels with their rigging afire were torn from their anchorage and driven ashore. A hundred and sixty persons perished during that awful night. A quarter of a million pounds worth of property was destroyed, and the loss by the destruction of the forests was incalculable.

201. In 1827 the Americans made trouble in the "disputed territory." The governor of Maine marshalled his militia along the frontier. Some filibusterers made a dash into the Madawaska district and hoisted the American flag. Sir Howard Douglas moved troops to the frontier to resist invasion if necessary. A New Brunswick constable drove into Madawaska where the "stars and stripes" were flying, levelled the staff, bundled the flag under his arm, seized the ringleader, and drove off with him to Fredericton jail. The governor and people of Maine were indignant, but the excitement caused by the incident soon died away. The governments of Great Britain and the United States referred the question of the disputed boundary to the King of the Netherlands.

202. Great Britain in 1830 threw open the trade of the West Indies to the United States, and this concession injuriously affected the maritime provinces. A report that the British government intended to repeal the duties on Baltic timber, and consequently to withdraw the protection under which the lumber trade flourished, caused intense dissatisfaction in New Brunswick. Sir Howard Douglas, who was recalled to England to give information regarding the "disputed territory," wrote ably against the "repeal" of the duties, and the "repeal" bill in Parliament was for the time defeated. Sir Howard did not return, but his services were gratefully remembered in New Brunswick. Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell was his successor.

CHAPTER XII.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.—LOWER CANADA.

203. The petitions from Lower Canada, and also from the upper province, received an attentive hearing from

the British Parliament. A committee, known as "the Canada Committee of 1828," was formed, who examined a number of leading men of both provinces, and of all parties and sects, on the statement of grievances in the said petitions. The committee drew up a "Report" in favor of concessions and reforms, and this report was, at first, enthusiastically received by the party of "reformers," as they were called. It is sufficient to say that the report recommended that the duties raised by the act of 1774 should be placed under control of the Assembly, on condition that it made permanent provision for the salaries of the governor-general, the executive councillors, and judges; that judges and bishops and archdeacons should not sit in the legislative council; that the executive and legislative councils should be made more independent, by the introduction of gentlemen who were not officers of the Crown, but who represented all the interests of the province; and that in Lower Canada, in making new appointments, no invidious distinction should be made between British Protestants and French-Canadian Catholics. The report censured the Earl of Dalhousie for taking £140,000 (\$560,000 in all) out of the treasury without the sanction of the Assembly. And in reference to the failure of Sir John Caldwell it recommended that proper securities should be taken before the appointment of receiver-general was made, and that all accounts should be regularly examined by a "board of audit." An extension of representation in the legislature, and the establishment of English law over lands held on the "tenure of free and common socage," were suggested as remedies for the grievances of the British population of the townships.

204. The unpopular Dalhousie was recalled, and Sir James Kempt, from Nova Scotia, was appointed in his stead. The new governor-general recognized Papineau as speaker when the Assembly met. For a brief time there

was peace, and the Assembly gave its attention to the business of the country. The British government, to carry out the suggestions of "the Committee," placed at the disposal of the Assembly all the revenues save "the casual and territorial," called members of the Reform party, ten of whom were French-Canadians, to seats in the Executive Council, and so remodelled the Legislative Council that out of thirty-five members only seven were officers under the Crown. The Assembly did not do its part to carry out the suggestions of "the Committee," in a right spirit. It remodelled the electoral districts of the province, but in such a manner as to increase the already too great French-Canadian majority. The Assembly soon grew angry because the British government would not give it control of the casual and territorial revenue, and it refused to make permanent provision for the judges and councillors until that reserved revenue was handed over to it.

205. In fact, no concession at this time, short of giving them absolute control of the government, would have satisfied the French-Canadians. If they had had that control they might have filled all the seats in the councils with men of their own nationality; made what laws they pleased regarding schools, roads, and bridges; decreed that all properties must be held under the feudal tenure; and hampered British commerce by imposing high duties. They became so hostile and aggressive that the small British Reform minority, which up to this time had acted with them, withdrew, and sided with their own Tory countrymen, for it became a question of nationalities. The speaker, Papineau, with fiery eloquence, inflamed his people against the arrogance and tyranny of British power, and enthusiastically lauded the republican liberty of the United States. The "Canadien" newspaper denounced the British as usurpers and foreigners, and the British press stigmatized the French-Canadians as ingrates and rebels. Lord

Aylmer succeeded Sir James Kempt in 1830. The contest between the two branches of the legislature was very warm. In the year following the **Assembly refused to vote supplies**, or to provide for the judges and councillors, unless all the revenues were handed over to it. The salaries remained unpaid, for the governor-general could not draw on the receiver-general, as Dalhousie had done. Then, in **1834**, the Assembly gave expression to its discontent in ninety-two resolutions, which, in short, were the enumeration of all its grievances since 1820, and made demand for certain concessions. These **ninety-two resolutions** were embodied in an address to the king and parliament. The British minority presented a counter-address, setting forth its grievances. Its members hoped that the British government would give a decided refusal to the demands of the French majority, and were angry when it took a conciliatory course, and appointed "**a Commission of Inquiry**," of which the new governor-general, Lord Gosford, and Sir Charles Grey and Sir James Gipps were the members. The French majority had no faith in committees or commissions. They absolutely refused to vote full supplies or pay four years' arrearages unless concessions were made, which the governor-general was not empowered to make. Affairs came to a **deadlock**.

206. The concessions demanded by the French majority, if granted, would have given it full control of the government. The **chief demands of the majority** were the surrender into its hands of the casual and territorial revenue, which would give it the command of all the revenues, to expend them as it pleased; the making the Legislative Council an elective body, in the same way as the Assembly was; the conversion of the Executive Council into a ministry, responsible to the people, so that, on receiving their appointments from the Crown, members should appear before the people for re-election, and

should remain in power only so long as their acts were sustained by a majority of the representatives of the people in the Assembly.

207. This system of responsible government, as it was called, was what the people of all the provinces were, as we shall show, striving to obtain. Each province had some grievance peculiar to itself, but the people of each were united in their endeavor to break down the monopoly of power in the hands of the Executive and Legislative Councils, whose members assumed the position of a privileged class, holding their seats for life, and acknowledging no responsibility to the people for their acts.

CHAPTER XIII.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT—UPPER CANADA.

208. The Reform party of Upper Canada hoped that the suggestions made by the "Canada Committee of 1828" would lead to some change in the composition of the Executive and Legislative Councils by introducing members into their ranks who represented the feelings and opinions of the people of the province. But the "**Family Compact**" kept their ranks unbroken. In fact, that report only made the Reformers more dissatisfied, as it awakened hopes that were doomed to disappointment. Major-General Sir John Colborne, the governor-general, was altogether in 1828 sympathy with the dominant party.

209. In Upper Canada two nationalities did not divide the province as in Lower Canada; but the question of origin in the British province was almost as exasperating as that of nationality was in the French. Persons emigrating from the British Isles, or coming in from the United States, to the province, were looked upon by the loyalists

and first American settlers as strangers and aliens. They were placed in a position of inferiority, and they found it almost impossible to advance or to rise. Even Americans who had settled in the province after 1783 were looked upon as aliens, though many of them had fought for Canada in the war of 1812, and had held office and possessed land. The dominant party would have subjected them to the indignity, as they considered it, of taking the oath of allegiance, and submitting to a formal seven years' residence before they were admitted to the privileges of British subjects. This **alien question** raised very angry feelings, and made people hate the dominance of the "Family Compact."

210. The members of the "Family Compact," many of whom were men of high character and talents, were firmly of the opinion that the preservation of the province to the British crown, and the maintenance of the British Constitution, depended upon their upholding the prerogative of the Crown and their own privileges, and on their resisting the encroachments of the people. They were therefore resolutely opposed to all change, all innovation, all reform, so called. **The Reformers** were divided into two sections, the moderate and the extreme. **The Moderates**, represented by such men as Robert Baldwin, Marshall Bidwell, Judge Rideout, desired to make the Executive Council responsible to the representatives of the people, to sweep away the invidious privileges claimed by the Church of England, to promote a better system of Crown land management and settlement, to give education to the children of the poorer classes, and, generally, to establish a less costly and more economical government that would spend less money on high salaries, pensions, and sinecures, and more on roads, canals, and other works of utility. **The extreme section**, whose representative man was William Lyon McKenzie, wanted all that the Moder-

ates wanted, and more. They admired the government of the United States, and envied the amazing progress and prosperity of this country, which they attributed to its political freedom, and they wished to model Upper Canada after that pattern.

211. McKenzie was a native of Dundee, Scotland, and had emigrated to Upper Canada when a young and poor man. He first engaged in trade, and afterwards started a journal in York, (Toronto). He criticised sharply the acts of the Executive Council, and he was hated and persecuted for his audacity. Some youths belonging to the official party broke into his office and destroyed his type. This outrage elevated him to the rank of a political martyr, and the people of York elected him one of their members in the Assembly. In the Assembly, in 1829, the Reformers had a large majority, but they could do nothing, as the Council scorned them, and treated their censure of its acts very lightly. The Reformers then saw that it was useless to have a majority in the Assembly unless the Council acknowledged that it was amenable to censure, unless, when its acts did not meet with the approval of the Assembly, its members amended those acts, or gave up their seats to others whose opinions were in harmony with those of the majority of the Assembly. The Reformers then desired to make the Council responsible to the Assembly.

212. George IV. died in 1830, and was succeeded by William IV., "the people's friend." A new House met in the following year, in which the Reformers 1831 were in a small minority. McKenzie, almost alone, denounced what he considered the corrupt acts of the government, and made himself very hateful to the Tories. He was expelled from the House for an alleged libel against the government. He was elected again, and again expelled, and declared to be disqualified from sitting

in the Assembly during the term of the existing House. **McKenzie** was now looked upon as a martyr by the people, and he was sent off to England as their agent with a petition setting forth all their grievances, and all the reforms they wished to be made. The reform ministry of Earl Grey was then in power, and his colonial secretary, Lord Goderich, gave him a courteous reception, and promised that the people's grievances would be redressed, and even dismissed two law officers of the Crown from their offices for the active part which they had taken in expelling McKenzie from the House. But neither McKenzie nor the people were the better for the good intention or good-natured acts of Lord Goderich, as Mr. Stanley (Earl Derby), his successor, undid nearly all he had done. The Tories, who were much disgusted at the courtesy shown to the radical fellow McKenzie, treated Goderich's suggestions of reform with contempt.

213. **McKenzie**, during his absence in England, was elected to the Assembly. When he took his seat, he was dragged from it by the sergeant-at-arms. This act caused extraordinary popular excitement, and called forth remonstrances from the colonial secretary, but for all that McKenzie was not permitted to take his seat during the term of the House. In that year the town of 1834 York was incorporated as the city of Toronto, and McKenzie was elected its first mayor.

214. The discontent of the Reformers, who were now acting in concert with the Reformers of Lower Canada, was poured forth in their "**Seventh Report of Grievances.**" The imperial government took it into serious consideration, and sent out Sir Francis Bond Head to supersede Sir John Colborne, with an answer to the report. Sir John was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in British North America. His last act as governor-general was to erect fifty-six rectories in the Clergy Reserves. No

act could have been more unpopular, or more calculated to intensify the angry feelings with which Upper Canada was then too rife.

215. Before **Sir Francis Bond Head** arrived in Toronto, in January, 1836, the rumor that he was a friend to Reform had preceded him, and the Reformers took hope and courage therefrom. He belonged to the Liberal party in England, but he was not long in Upper Canada before he showed himself to be an **out-and-out Tory**. He had talent, and was an author of some repute, but was entirely ignorant of the colonies and their government. His temper and prejudices unfitted him to conduct a mission of conciliation. The first act was indiscreet. He submitted in full to the Assembly the instructions he had received from the colonial secretary, Lord Glenelg, which were adverse to the granting of an elective legislative council and a responsible executive. As these instructions were identical to those given to Lord Gosford, who had not published them, but had used language which was understood as meaning that he had full power to settle all grievances, Papineau and his fellow Reformers declared that they had been deceived, and grew rebellious in their denunciations of the British government.

216. **Sir Francis** appointed three Reformers, **Baldwin, Rolphe, and Dunn**, to seats in the Executive Council, but they soon resigned them, as they insisted that the governor-general should recognize the principle of the responsibility of the Executive Council to the Assembly, but this **Sir Francis** absolutely refused to do. He said that the Council was responsible to him alone, and he was responsible to the king and parliament, and he was not bound to take the advice of his Council unless he chose. **Sir Francis** then formed another Council, composed entirely of members of the Family Compact, and adopted all the views and prejudices of the party. He was roused by

a letter from Papineau, calling on all the Reformers in the British provinces to unite in order to obtain redress for their common grievances, which was read by the speaker in the Assembly. He conceived that the purport of it was revolutionary, that it showed a design to subvert the British Constitution and to establish republican institutions, and to convey threats of foreign interference. Thenceforth the struggle for responsible government took in his mind the shape of a conflict between monarchy and democracy, and he threw himself, heart and soul, with pen and tongue, on the side of monarchy and the Family Compact. He ran counter to his instructions from Downing Street, and would not pursue a conciliatory course with the Reformers.

CHAPTER XIV.

REBELLION.

217. It has been stated that a Commission of Inquiry came out to Lower Canada in 1835. Early in the session of 1837 Lord John Russell, premier of England, introduced into the British Parliament twelve resolutions which embodied the chief suggestions made by the members of that commission in their reports. He conceded almost everything to the Reformers, except an elective Legislative Council and a responsible executive, and a measure was passed giving the governor-general power to draw £142,000 currency (\$568,000) out of the hands of the receiver-general without the sanction of the Assembly. The famous Lord Brougham told Lord John that this measure would drive the French-Canadians into rebellion. But Lord John had no fear of that. He thought that these people had very little to complain of. They were

lightly taxed; their representatives had control of the revenues; and seats would be given in the Legislative and Executive Councils to men of their nationality, which would give them a fairer representation in these bodies.

218. The reformers in Upper and Lower Canada were thus denied the only concessions that would have satisfied them. It was urged in Parliament that if the Legislative Council was made elective it would, like the Assembly, represent the feelings and sentiments of the people, and be no longer a check to the encroachments and hasty legislation of the Assembly. And if the Executive Council was made responsible to the Assembly, the governor, who was appointed by the king and parliament and was responsible to them for his acts, would become a mere cipher, and the power would be transferred to the body of electors and the provinces would become independent. In short, it was thought that if responsible government was granted to the provinces it would sever their connection with the empire. The moderate Reformers contended that no such consequence would follow. They only desired to make the Executive Council responsible to the Assembly in mere local matters; the governor, as representative of the king, would still, under the direction of king and parliament, have command of the naval and military forces, and the power of making treaties and binding the colonies.

219. Papineau and the leaders of the French-Canadian party were furious when they learned the course the British Government intended to pursue with regard to reform. They denounced, in the most passionate terms, the measure giving the governor-general power to take money out of the treasury without the sanction of the Assembly. But the conduct of the majority of its members had made that arbitrary action necessary. For five years they had abandoned their legislative functions; they had refused to vote money to pay the salaries of the judges and other

officials, who, in consequence, were reduced to a destitute condition. The measure, in fact, was a charitable act to relieve the destitute. Both parties in Lower Canada were in state of rage against each other. If they had listened to cool advisers, and taken a calm view of the situation, they would have avoided much misery and trouble. **The British Government had shown itself conciliatory.** It could not be expected that it would all at once concede everything. The **French-Canadian** leaders, instead of foolishly breaking out into rebellion without counting the cost, ought to have accepted the concessions granted in the best spirit. The British Government would — as after events proved — grant even the utmost of their demands. But they were not alone blamable. The official party of the British minority did not do their best to make the measure of concession granted acceptable to the majority. The number of members in the executive and legislative councils was increased, but the new seats were given to persons who were connected with, or in sympathy with, the party in power, or in whom the majority had no confidence. "The gracious intentions of the king" were defeated by the way in which they were carried out, and that was the complaint in all the provinces.

220. In **Upper Canada** the policy of the British Government disappointed the moderate Reformers, and that policy and the exultant way in which the Tories received it drove **McKenzie** and the extreme party frantic with rage. By the beginning of summer **Lower Canada** was in a state of rebellion. Copies of a royal proclamation warning the inhabitants not to attend seditious meetings were torn down even from church walls. All the British troops were moved to Montreal or the vicinity, and two regiments were called for from the maritime provinces.

221. The rebellious movements in Lower Canada excited **McKenzie** and the extreme Reformers, and, in the mad

passion of the hour they imagined that "now or never" was the time to free themselves from the tyranny of Sir Francis Bond Head and the Tories. On the 2d of August, **"the Declaration of the Reformers,"** in which they recited all their grievances, renounced the authority of the Imperial Government, and gave active sympathy to the cause of the French-Canadians, was issued. This rebellious document was not signed by the moderate Reformers. Sir Francis took no notice of this declaration, nor did he try to stop McKenzie, who went from village to village in the central part of Upper Canada, delivering inflammatory speeches, sometimes narrowly escaping maltreatment from angry loyalist farmers and Orangemen. Sir Francis was so confident of the loyalty of the militia of the province, that he sent all the British troops to Montreal.

222. The governor-general, Lord Gosford, tried to bring Papineau and his party to reason. Towards the end of August he called the legislature together, and, in his opening speech, he besought the members of the Assembly to accept the conciliatory measures offered by the Imperial Government, to resume their duties, and pass the supplies; but his words had no effect. Papineau would have everything or nothing. After the dissolution of the House, he and other leaders held meetings throughout the province, at which they stirred up their hearers to rebellion. On the 25th of October they had a great gathering on a meadow in St. Charles on the Richelieu, **"the meeting of the five counties"** as it was called, to which the "patriots," as the French-Canadian rebels now called themselves, came with arms, and placing their hands on the column of Liberty erected there, devoted themselves to the service of their country; that is, they vowed to rebel and fight the forces of the Imperial Government, because their leader, Papineau, could not obtain all the reforms he demanded.

223. In Quebec on November 6, a meeting of the French-Canadian "**Sons of Liberty**" was dispersed by the members of the British club, the "**Doric**," but no life was lost on either side. Not long afterwards, the governor-general issued orders to arrest the leaders of the revolt who were posted in villages on the Richelieu. On the same night, the 22d, Colonel Gore, with five hundred soldiers and one gun, descended from Sorel to **St. Denis**, where Dr. Wolfred Nelson and a rebel force held a strong stone building and some houses on either side of the road leading to it, and Colonel Wetherall, with a force of about the same strength, ascended from Chambly to **St. Charles** where Colonel Stowell Brown and a party of *habitans*, armed mostly with old muskets and fowling-pieces, were well posted in an old French château. The weather was wretched and gloomy, and the roads very muddy. Gore did not reach **St. Denis** until ten of the following morning, and his men were exhausted and footsore after their dismal march of sixteen miles. As they advanced to attack the main building, the rebels posted in the houses on either side of the road, fired into them. Their one gun could make no impression on the strong stone walls. They became discouraged, and leaving the piece of artillery stuck fast in the mud, they retreated, carrying with them sixteen killed and wounded. During the night a young lieutenant named **Weir**, who was conveying despatches from Gore to Wetherall, was barbarously murdered by the insurgents. Wetherall did not reach **St. Charles** until noon of the 25th. Colonel Brown fled after the first shot was fired; the *habitans* held the old château until the British soldiers broke into the grounds, and dislodged them by volleys of musketry, and then they took to flight, leaving fifty-six of their friends dead behind them. The soldiery, for the murder of **Weir**, made the poor people of **St. Charles** suffer. Dr.

Nelson left St. Denis on the 5th of December. He was captured when attempting to escape across the boundary line and join Papineau and other leaders, who were by this time safe under the protection of the "stars and stripes," and taken to Montreal and lodged in jail.

224. The night before Dr. Nelson and the rebels left St. Denis, McKenzie and four hundred men were gathered about Montgomery's tavern on Yonge Street, the road running north from Toronto. The city was unguarded and the citizens asleep. But some watch was kept, for a patrol riding along the road saw a band of men on the march, and he galloped back with the report that the rebels were advancing. Then the alarm-bell was rung, and the noise woke Sir Francis from a sound sleep. Then the citizens rushed to the town hall and armed themselves with the muskets stored there. Messengers were hurriedly sent off to bring up the militia of the surrounding districts. The rebels did not venture to attack the roused city. Midway they became frightened, and retreated to their rendezvous at the tavern. Next day Toronto was full of militiamen, and they continued to flock in, and Sir Francis was in a position to do with McKenzie as he chose. On the 7th, he, with five hundred men and two guns, advanced along Yonge Street to where the rebels, under McKenzie, and Van Egmond, an old French officer, and Lount, a blacksmith, were posted on both sides of the road. They did not maintain their position long in face of the fire of the guns and the muskets of the militia. They broke and fled. Sir Francis ordered Montgomery's tavern to be burnt, but pardoned a few rebel prisoners. He proclaimed McKenzie (who quickly made his way to the American side of the Niagara River) an outlaw, and offered a large reward for his capture. He and his Council were in no lenient mood after this victory. They wreaked their vengeance on leaders of the revolt, and persecuted

people who were suspected of having sympathy with it. Rebellion was not put down in Lower Canada until the middle of December. Sir John Colborne, with 1,300 British troops, marched into the village of *St. Eustache*, in the county of the Two Mountains, and drove the main body of the insurgents from it. Dr. *Chenier* and four hundred of the bolder sort took position in a stone church, but the British guns soon battered down its walls, and they were exposed to a deadly fire. After an hour, during which *Chenier* and a hundred men fell, they fled from the ruins. Sir John on the 15th advanced to *St. Benoit*, but met no resistance. On report of his coming, the leaders had fled. In the night some British settlers, who had been forced to leave their farms at the breaking out of the rebellion, and who had followed in a bitter, revengeful temper the march of the British troops, set fire to the village, which was partly destroyed.

225. In the meantime *McKenzie* had, along with a patriot army, — that is, a body of Canadian refugees and American adventurers, — taken possession of *Navy Island* in the Niagara River, a short distance above “the Falls.” He proclaimed a republic for Upper Canada, and as an inducement to volunteers to fight under his flag of liberty, he offered grants of land and money bounties. He also offered a large reward for the capture of Sir Francis. No recruits flocked to his standard. Colonel *McNab* and a body of militia appeared at *Chippewa*, opposite the island. Van Rensselaer, the commander of the Americans, was a very incompetent general. The militia on the mainland fired on *McKenzie*’s men on the island, who returned the fire, and no harm was done to either side. On the night of the 27th a steamer, the *Caroline*, belonging to the American adventurers, lying at *Fort Schlosser*, was captured by a party of British sailors in boats, and set on fire, and then towed into mid-stream above the

rapids, and left to be drawn in by the current and carried swiftly in a flaming mass right over the crest of the Horse-Shoe Falls.

226. Soon after this McKenzie and his patriots left Navy Island.

CHAPTER XV.

LORD DURHAM. 1838.

227. THE state of Lower Canada was very wretched during the year after the rebellion. The people were still inclined to rebel, but they had no leaders. They imagined, however, that the bands of sympathizers who were gathering in all the American frontier towns might aid their cause. The times were troublous, and no one knew what might happen. The United States government was angry at the "Caroline" affair, and all the more angry because the British government was pleased by it, and commended Colonel McNab, by whose orders the act was done. McNab afterwards received the honor of knighthood. But if the United States government had cause to complain of the British government, much more had the British government cause to complain of the United States government, for it knew of preparations for the invasion of Canada being openly made at Ogdensburg, Buffalo, and Detroit, and did nothing to stop them. These American sympathizers or marauders might have caused a great deal more trouble than they did, if there had not been so many jealous, incapable generals among them, and so few trustworthy privates. Hence, their schemes of invasion turned out to be ridiculous failures. On the 22d of February, a band of fifteen hundred under McKenzie's drunken general, Van Rensselaer, made a show of attacking Kingston, but got no further than Hickory Island, where they took alarm at the bad conduct of their lead-

ers and hastily recrossed to the southern bank of the St. Lawrence. In the month of March, two unsuccessful attempts were made to invade the western peninsula, — at Sandwich from Bois Blanc Island, and at Amherstburg, from Point Pelé Island, by bands of maurauders, who styled themselves "**the patriot army**," under General Sutherland. Sutherland was captured and put in jail in Toronto. He wrote a confession before making an attempt to kill himself, in which he accused the United States government of encouraging these invasions and of designing to conquer Canada. Sutherland, probably, did not tell the truth, but Sir Francis believed him, and wrote indignant despatches calling that government sharply to account.

228. Lord Gosford was recalled, and **Sir John Colborne** was appointed governor with supreme power to carry out, along with his Council, such laws as were necessary. It was the arbitrary, military council over again. Whatever form of government might be given to Lower Canada, people saw that it would be impossible to return to the state of things when a French majority controlled the Assembly and a British minority ruled in the Council. A section of the British minority desired to make Lower Canada English by abolishing the French laws and language, and to unite it with Upper Canada, but this was equally impossible.

229. In Upper Canada **Sir Francis Bond Head** refused to carry out the policy of the British government as set forth in the "**Civil List Bill**," which was then law in New Brunswick. He resigned and was replaced by **Colonel Sir George Arthur**, formerly governor of Van Dieman's Land, a penal colony. Sir Francis received many flattering addresses before he left for England. He was entitled to the good wishes, at least, of the Tory party, as he had done all he could to support it. His successor was as strong an opponent of responsible government as himself. The state of

the province was most unsatisfactory. The jails were filled with political prisoners. The Tory Council even punished persons who were suspected of sympathy with the rebellion, and dissatisfaction at their rule. They ordered Lount and Matthews, two leaders of the late rebellion, to be executed, and would listen to no prayers for mercy. The colonial secretary had to interfere to prevent any more executions. The temper displayed by the party in power united against the Council all parties and sects outside its ranks and its religion, and made them determined to obtain some constitutional change.

230 The state of the Canadas had the earnest attention of the British government. They appointed **Earl of Durham** governor-general of all the North American colonies and high commissioner to adjust certain important questions concerning the future government of Lower and Upper Canada. The earl was a man of much ability and many accomplishments, and a Liberal, and in sympathy with reform. He was said to be very decided in his opinions and to hate contradiction, and to be proud and sensitive. Unfortunately for his peace of mind, his political opponents in the British parliament viewed his appointment with jealousy, and were disposed to criticise all his acts very keenly. He arrived in Quebec on the 21st of May with 1838 a large and gorgeous retinue of servants. He formed a special council of five, none of whom had been members of any previous council of the province. He had on his staff several gentlemen of great ability, and he sent them through the Canadas and to the maritime provinces to gather information concerning their political grievances and their general condition. He called on the United States government to stop the hostile demonstrations of the American sympathizers, and he caused the frontiers to be put in a state of defence. The disposal of the political prisoners was a difficult question to deal with. It was

useless to bring them to trial, as the British and French were so exasperated against each other that no jury could be found to convict a prisoner or agree upon a verdict. He pardoned all minor offenders, and issued an "ordinance" banishing Dr. Wolfred Nelson and eight other leaders, to Bermuda. The governor of that colony objected that he had no legal authority to detain these men. This "ordinance" was sharply criticised in the British parliament, and an act was passed disallowing it, but indemnifying — freeing from blame and penalty — the earl who had issued it, and his officers who had acted under it. The Earl of Durham felt very sore and angry. He published the act of indemnity, but proclaimed that as the Imperial Government had disallowed his "ordinance" the pardon he had extended to all minor offenders was extended to the nine, and in fact to Papineau and all other great offenders. He then returned to England with all his retinue, and left Sir John Colborne again in supreme command.

231. Late in autumn there was a renewal of insurrectionary risings in Lower Canada, and hostile demonstrations on the frontiers. The rising which caused most trouble took place in La Prairie County, at Napierville, where Dr. Robert Nelson, brother of Wolfred, collected a large body of insurgents and proclaimed the independence of Canada. On the approach of a British force under Sir James MacDonnell he retreated towards the boundary line in the hope of being joined by American sympathizers. His advance-guard was intercepted by two hundred militiamen and put to flight, and then the victors fell back on Odell-town, and, on the approach of Nelson and his main body, threw themselves into a church, and from that church he could not dislodge them. After suffering a loss of a hundred men killed and wounded, the insurgents crossed the line. After this there was no other rising. The British soldiery and the militia laid waste the counties

south of the river St. Lawrence, and crushed out the rebellion.

232. In November, members of the "**Hunters' Lodges**" — which were secret societies formed with the object of upholding republican institutions in America and fighting for the independence of Canada — were active. Attempts were made to invade Canada from Ogdensburg. **Van Schultz**, a Pole, and a hundred and seventy "**Hunters**" crossed over to **Prescott** on the 11th. On the 15th they were driven from the position they first took, into a circular stone mill, and there they held out until the 16th, when several companies of regular troops came to the assistance of the marines and militia from Kingston. The mill was surrounded and its walls battered down, and **Schultz** surrendered, and, along with eleven other men, was executed. **Président Van Buren** very tardily issued a proclamation to warn the American people not to give countenance to hostile enterprises against a friendly nation. But this proclamation did not prevent "**Hunters**" in the west from crossing from **Detroit** one December morning, with encouraging cheers from the citizens of that place, and attacking **Sandwich**. They were thoroughly beaten, and roughly treated, however, by the militia under **Colonel Prince**.

233. The year 1839 opened with the prospect of still further trouble. It will be remembered that the question of the "**Disputed Territory**" was referred ¹⁸³⁹ to the King of the Netherlands. His Majesty gave his award in 1831, but as that award did not please the people of the United States the territory still remained in dispute between **Maine** and **New Brunswick**. In **January** some lawless parties made their way into this territory to cut lumber. The governor of **Maine** sent a sheriff and a body of constables to expel the invaders and seize their lumber. They encountered a body of **New Brunswickers**, and in the fray

which followed, a Maine land agent was seized and carried off to Fredericton jail, and a New Brunswick warden captured and taken to Augusta. Then the governor of Maine sent a party of soldiers to aid his sheriff. Then the governor of New Brunswick put out a proclamation asserting the right of Great Britain to guard the territory in dispute. Then the governor of Maine issued a counter-proclamation denying that right, and calling out ten thousand militiamen. Then the governor of New Brunswick sent an army, composed of two regular regiments, and a body of St. John, York, and Carleton volunteers, into Madawaska to watch the Maine militia. There was great excitement in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the States there was an anti-British party who clamored for war. But President Van Buren and the body of the people were cool. General Winfield Scott was sent to Maine with full power to settle the difficulty, and he opened up correspondence with Sir John Harvey in Fredericton. The excitement died away. These two veterans, who at Stony Creek and Lundy's Lane had fought against each other and knew what war really meant, soon came to an agreement, and the difficulty was settled by Maine consenting to withdraw its militia, and Great Britain undertaking to expel, in case of necessity arising, invaders of the disputed territory.

234. But the difficulty was not really settled until 1842, when, by the "Ashburton Treaty" (so called after Lord Ashburton), the larger and more valuable part of the territory was ceded to the United States.

CHAPTER XVI.

UNION OF THE CANADAS.

235. Lord Durham submitted to the Imperial Parliament a "Report" on the political grievances and general con-

dition of Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. He suggested a confederation of these provinces, and the building of an intercolonial railway. As it was impossible to carry out such a large scheme at once, he advised the establishment of a legislative union of Upper and Lower Canada, and the recognition of the principle of the responsibility of the Executive Council to the representatives of the people. The Reformers read Lord Durham's report with the greatest satisfaction, and called it a monument of wisdom; the Tories were angry at it, and spoke with contempt of the suggestions made in it. The Imperial Government acted on the advice given in it, and sent out Hon. Charles Poulett Thompson as governor-general to bring about a union of the two Canadas. 1839

236. Mr. Thompson arrived in Quebec on the 13th of October. Soon after he published despatches from Lord John Russell, which pleased the Reformers everywhere even more than the report. They had been debarred from holding seats in the councils and high offices by Family Compacts, — now Lord John gave them hope that “men of character and ability would be free to win positions of honor, trust, and usefulness.” Lord John insisted that it was necessary for the maintenance of the unity of the Empire that the Imperial Government should have control over the affairs of the colonies; that the colonial secretary should send instructions to the governors. This “dictation from Downing Street,” as it was called, greatly displeased the extreme Reformers. In our day the Imperial Government has almost ceased to interfere in the affairs of the provinces. It has been proved, as Lord John acknowledged in 1839, that the attachment of the people to the Crown is the best security for the permanence of the union between the parent state and the colonies. He cautioned governors and assemblies against

the extreme exercise of the prerogative of dissolution on the one hand, and of the right to stop supplies on the other. That this caution was necessary the history of all the British North American provinces from 1791 to 1839 had abundantly proved.

237. In a **despatch on the tenure of office** he laid down the rule that members of the Executive Council and chief officers — “heads of departments” — must consent to hold office dependent on the will of the sovereign, or his representative, and not for life; and that they must regard a change of policy, or the appointment of a new governor, as a sufficient reason for changing the members of executive councils and heads of departments.

238. Mr. Thompson found it very difficult to overcome the opposition of the Tory party of Upper Canada to the proposed union, but he did overcome it by appealing to the loyalty of its members. The **Union Bill** was passed by the legislature. A special council was called in Lower Canada, which also passed it. Mr. Thompson thought it useless to ask the consent of the French majority to a measure which they looked upon as a scheme to destroy their nationality. Finally, the **Act of Union** of the two Canadas was passed by the Imperial Government in 1840, and became law in 1841.

239. This Act provided for one **Legislative Council** of twenty members, and one **Assembly** of eighty-four members, with equal representation in both branches for the two provinces. The legislative councillors were appointed by the Crown and held their seats for life. The demand of the Reformers for an elective Legislative Council was thus not granted. An Executive Council of eight members was formed, and those members who held seats in the Assembly went back to their constituents for re-election, to test whether they still had their confidence, and the Council was to hold office only as long as it com-

manded the support of a majority in the Assembly. A permanent civil list of £75,000 currency (\$300,000) was established. The control of all the revenues was given to the Assembly, and the right to introduce all measures involving the expenditure of money to the government. The use of both the English and the French language in debate, and in recording the proceedings of the legislature in the journals, was prescribed.

240. Mr. Thompson (now Lord Sydenham) opened the first session of the parliament of the united Canadas 1841 in Kingston on the 13th of June. A number of important bills were introduced to establish municipal institutions, and a system of common-school education, and to promote the building of public works, and extend the canal system.

241. Lord Sydenham died from the effects of a fall from his horse October 13th, and he was succeeded after a time by Sir Charles Bagot — in 1842 — who called to his council four prominent Reform members, Baldwin, Hincks, Dominic Daly, and Lafontaine. He died in the May of the following year, and was succeeded by Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe. At this time a Conservative government was in power in England, and this fact had something to do with the reaction to Toryism which set in.

242. The Union did not put an end to conflicts between Tories and Reformers, or between British and French. The British members of the two Canadas had now a majority in the Assembly. But the French-Canadians, though the minority, were not weak, for in contests between Tories and Reformers, by throwing their strength on one side or the other, they held what is called "the balance of power" in their hands.

243. The Tory party had never accepted the new order of things, the principle of the responsibility of the Executive

to the Assembly, or the rules concerning the "tenure of office" laid down in the Russell despatch. They looked with great hope to Sir Charles Metcalfe, who had all the Tory feelings against responsible government. It was not very long until he raised a ferment by making two appointments to office without consulting his Council. He said that he was responsible to the Queen and parliament for his acts, and as representative of Her Majesty he claimed the right to make appointments to office. This was not the doctrine held by the advocates of responsible government. Baldwin and Lafontaine, two Reform members of his Council, requested Sir Charles to give up the right he claimed, which Sir Charles refused to do, and then they resigned. A general election followed, and the governor's action was sustained, for in the new House the majority of members were of the Tory party. A Tory government was formed, of which Mr. Draper was the leader. The stand taken by Sir Charles Metcalfe was applauded by the parties in all the provinces who were opposing reform. The British Government elevated him to the peerage. He was soon compelled by grave illness to resign, and he returned to England in 1845. Major-General Cathcart was his successor.

244. The Draper government proposed a measure to indemnify persons in Upper Canada who had lost property during the rebellion. The French-Canadian members supported it, on condition that persons in Lower Canada who had taken no part in the rebellion should be indemnified for their losses. An act was passed in 1846 which provided for the full payment of the Upper Canadian losses and a small portion of the Lower Canadian; which thus left unsettled a question which aroused the angriest feelings, and revived the war of races, — British against French.

245. The Liberal government of Lord John Russell

came into power in 1847. The colonial secretary, Earl Grey, wrote a despatch confirming the Russell despatch on the "tenure of office." Lord Elgin, a son-in-law of the Earl of Durham, came out as Governor-General. He also was a Liberal, and in sympathy with reform, and a statesman of great ability and eloquence. During his term responsible government was firmly established. In 1848 a general election took place, and in the new House the Reformers and French-Canadian party, which 1848 threw its strength on their side, had a large majority. The Draper government resigned, and a Reform government, of which Messrs. Baldwin and Lafontaine were leaders, was formed. They brought in a bill to authorize the government to raise £100,000 to pay individuals in Lower Canada for losses incurred in the rebellion, which had not been met by the bill of 1846. This "Rebellion Losses Bill" was violently denounced by the British party, who carried their opposition so far as to threaten to break up the Union. They prayed Lord Elgin not to assent to it. But as, according to the established principles of responsible government, he was now bound to do so, he did assent to it on April 25th, 1849. As he was leaving the parliament buildings, he was hooted at and his carriage pelted with rotten eggs; and in the course of the night a turbulent crowd carrying lighted torches burst into the building, broke up the Assembly, and set the houses on fire. They, with the fine libraries, were utterly destroyed. The Imperial Government approved of Lord Elgin's assent to the bill. The British Loyalist party was for a time almost beside itself with rage, and agitated for the annexation of Canada to the United States.

246. Montreal was deprived of the honor of being the seat of government, and the course was adopted of transferring it to Quebec and Toronto every four years alternately.

CHAPTER XVII.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT IN NEW BRUNSWICK
AND NOVA SCOTIA.

247. IN Nova Scotia and New Brunswick there was also political agitation. In fact political agitation was at this time "in the air," as the saying is. It was felt in Great Britain, which was in the midst of the contest which ended in the passing of the first "Reform Bill," by which classes debarred from voting were admitted to the privilege. It was shown in France by the famous "Three Days' Revolution" (July, 1833), by which the absolute Bourbon dynasty was overturned and a constitutional king was enthroned. The feeling of the people of the maritime provinces against the system of government under which they lived was probably as strong as the feeling of the people of Upper and Lower Canada against their system, which was very similar. But among the first-named people there were no differences of nationality or origin to rouse very bitter, rancorous passions.

248. In the maritime provinces the Executive and Legislative Councils formed one branch, and combined the functions of making and administering the laws. In Nova Scotia the government was quite after the model of the "Family Compact" of Upper Canada. All the principal offices were in the hands of a few families, and the subordinate places were filled by their adherents. The Church of England was dominant, and all the members of the Council were members of it, save two who were Presbyterians. The bishop had a seat in the Council. And the Council sat in a sort of secret conclave with doors closed against the members of the Assembly.

249. In New Brunswick the feeling towards the Council was not so hard as it was in Nova Scotia. The

members of it fairly represented the province at large (whereas the members of the Nova Scotia Council were all residents of Halifax), and they did not shut the door in the face of the representatives of the people.

250. Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell was, as before stated, appointed governor of New Brunswick in 1831; and Major-General Sir Colin Campbell was made governor of Nova Scotia in 1834. Both were soldiers of somewhat similar character, and had no sympathy with political reformers.

251. New Brunswick took the lead in reform. In 1832 the Legislative Council was made a separate branch from the Executive. The reason given for this change was that a channel of communication might be opened up between the Executive Council and the Assembly by appointing members of the latter body to seats in the former. But, as no addition was made to the original five members of the Executive Council, the change only made the members of the Legislative Council jealous. But no doubt this change helped on reform, as the position of distinction in which the five members of the Executive Council were placed made members of the Assembly (who felt that they had been "taken in," but not in the sense they looked for) more determined to break down the "compact," and change it for a government which would be responsible to them—the representatives of the people. The great grievance of New Brunswick was the Crown Land Department. The system of granting lands favored the rich man as against the poor man, the large lumber operator as against the small operator. The head of the department, "the chief commissioner," Thomas Baillie, was an official appointed by the Crown, who enjoyed a salary very large in proportion to the salaries of other officials, and who held himself quite independent of the people and their representatives. From the proceeds of the sales of lands and lease of

mines, which was called "the casual and territorial revenue," were paid the salaries of the governor, judges, and other officials—the civil list as it was called—and a surplus remained over after these salaries were paid. The Assembly had no control over the department or over this revenue, but they claimed that they had the right to control and appropriate all revenues from whatever source.

252. The Assembly, in the session of 1832, prayed the 1832 governor to submit to it detailed accounts of the moneys received and expended by the Crown Land Department. The request was bluntly refused by Sir Archibald, and then a delegation of two of its members, Charles Simonds and E. B. Chandler, went to England to negotiate for the surrender of the "casual and territorial revenue" into its hands. The negotiations failed. Four years afterwards the Assembly made inquiries into the state of the department but could get no satisfaction. Again they appointed a delegation of two to go to England,—Messrs. W. Crane and L. A. Wilmot.

253. Lemuel Allan Wilmot was a Loyalist by both sides 1836 of the house, and he was then a young lawyer of great talent and promise. In this session of 1836 he made his first appearance in the Assembly, and by the force of his brilliant eloquence he took the lead of the reforming party.

254. The delegation was well received by Lord Glenelg, the colonial secretary, and the draft of a "Civil List Bill" was drawn up. By its provisions the net amount of the "casual and territorial revenue" was placed at the disposal of the Assembly on condition of its making a permanent provision of £14,500 (\$58,000) annually for the support of the "Civil List." The management of the Crown lands was vested in the governor and council, but they were commanded to submit detailed accounts, within fourteen days after the opening of each session, to enable the As-

sembly to maintain a supervision over the department. The principle of calling members of the Assembly to the Executive Council was recognized, but no peremptory rule was made; and the selection of members of the Legislative Council from the ranks of gentlemen representing the various interests of the province was recognized. All grants and leases of land, unless sold at auction to the highest bidder, were declared null and void.

255. The members of Council, who were, of course, anxious that the old order of things should stand, raised a number of objections to the Civil List Bill. The governor was of one mind with them, and he did not think it safe to trust the Assembly with the expenditure of the casual and territorial revenue, and the large surplus, amounting to £171,222 currency (\$684,818). The bill was passed by the Assembly and Legislative Council by large majorities in the session of 1837. But Sir Archibald repeatedly refused to give his assent to it and allow it to become law unless a "suspending clause" were attached to it; the effect of which would have been to keep the bill from going into operation until the will of the king concerning the suggestions made by the governor and council should be known; and it might be to burke it. During the session a member of the Council suddenly left Fredericton for England. The Assembly was startled, and thought this secret mission meant no good to the bill. It passed an angry address censuring the Council, and demanding the recall of the governor, and sent off their two former delegates, Messrs. Crane and Wilmot, to present it. Lord Glenelg told them that Sir Archibald had already sent in his resignation, and that no change would be made in the bill. This Civil List Bill, in fact, was the basis of the Constitution which the Imperial Government proposed to extend to Upper and Lower Canada and Nova Scotia. But the extreme Tories of these provinces thought it conceded too

much, and the extreme Liberals thought it conceded too little. It only pleased the moderate Reformers of New Brunswick.

256. The new governor, Major-General Sir John Harvey, gave his assent to the bill, and it became law on the 17th of July, 1837. Under his rule there was harmony in the legislature. In Nova Scotia in this year, a man entered the Assembly who soon caused the doors of the Council to be opened, and who also caused many things in the Council itself to be changed. This was Joseph Howe, the son of a Loyalist, and at this time the editor of a paper, called the "Nova Scotian." In 1836 the Board of Magistrates, who managed, or mismanaged, the affairs of the town of Halifax, prosecuted him for libel, for printing in his paper accusations against them of neglect of their duties, and of corruption. He pleaded his own case and most ably defended himself and was triumphantly acquitted. His conduct on this occasion made him very popular, and he was elected to the Assembly. He was resolute and fearless, able and eloquent, and the Reformers saw in him "the man for the time."

257. Howe's first action in the Assembly was to move a resolution calling upon the Council to throw open the doors. The Council derided him and his resolution. Nothing daunted, Howe moved twelve resolutions, in which the demand for open doors was repeated, and the members of Council were accused of being exclusive and intolerant to all classes and sects outside those of their own ranks and of their own religion, of being opposed to the spread of civil and religious liberty and education among the people, and of retarding the trade and commerce of the province by their selfish policy. These resolutions excited the wrath of the Council, and trouble between the two branches was only avoided by their withdrawal. But as the resolutions were combined in an address

to the king they accomplished the object they were then intended to have. They drew attention to the political grievances of the people. Lord Glenelg extended to Nova Scotia the provisions of the New Brunswick Civil List Bill, and commanded the Council to open their doors. But these concessions by no means pleased Howe and the Reformers.

CHAPTER XVIII.

RESPONSIBILITY ESTABLISHED IN NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

258. THE appearance of Lord Durham's Report had an influence on the course of events in Nova Scotia. It encouraged Howe and other leading Reformers to seek to establish the principle of responsibility in their province. And they were still more encouraged by the appearance of Lord John Russell's despatch on the "Tenure of Office." In the Assembly a resolution condemning the course of the Executive Council (what is called "a vote of want of confidence") was passed by a large majority. The object was to force the members of the Council to resign. But Sir Colin Campbell refused to be guided by the Russell despatch. He was quite well pleased with his advisers, and did not see why he should change them at the demand of the Assembly. He chose to be governed by the despatches of Lord Glenelg, 1836, at the time of the passing of the "Civil List Bill" in which no such rule was laid down that members of the executive must resign their seats when the majority of members of Assembly voted no confidence in them. Howe raised a great commotion. An address to the Queen was passed praying for the recall of the governor. He went through the province and held meetings and made

speeches denouncing the governor and the Council, and in praise of "responsible government." Tory leaders held meetings which were also crowded and excited, at which Howe was denounced for inciting the people to rebellion, and as being no better than a Papineau or a McKenzie. Mr. Poulett Thompson (**Lord Sydenham**) arrived in **Halifax** in July. He had consultations with

1840 Howe and others, and he reconstructed the Executive Council by putting out some of the members who had seats in neither branch of the legislature, and taking in Howe, Uniacke, and McNab, Reformers, thus forming a coalition government. The new members accepted office on the understanding that they would hold their seats on the tenure of responsibility.

259. Though **Sir Collin Campbell** was, as a governor, unpopular with the Reformers, in his private capacity he was esteemed by them. He now retired, and he parted pleasantly even with Howe. His successor was **Lord Falkland**, a Liberal in politics. He came to Nova Scotia with a reputation something similar to the reputation which preceded Sir Francis Bond Head in Canada. He was hailed as a friend by the Reformers on his coming, but execrated as an enemy on his going away.

260. The **Coalition Government** was not a success. The members did not agree well among themselves. The views of Mr. Johnstone, leader of the Tory section, and those of Mr. Howe, leader of the Reform section, clashed. They differed on the question of education; the former was in favor of denominational colleges, supported by grants of public money; the latter of a provincial university. The people of the province were agitated over this question, and a number of Reformers were displeased with the view taken of it by Howe. Lord Falkland was now suspected to be under the influence of Johnstone, and, without consulting Howe, he dissolved the House. In the new House

that met after the general election there was a small majority of members who supported the policy of the Tory leader. Stormy times followed.

261. **Lord Falkland made the angry Reformers still more angry.** He held that as governor he had the right to make appointments to office, and he gave a seat in the Executive Council to a Mr. Almon, one of Johnstone's friends, who had a seat in neither branch of the legislature. This appointment was very displeasing to the Reform party, and Howe and his colleagues resigned their seats in the Council. The governor offered to take these colleagues back if they would desert their leader and their principles, and, like the Tory members of the Council, scout at the idea of their being responsible to the people. But they refused his insulting offer. **Lord Falkland was now seen in his true colors.** He wrote despatches to the colonial secretary to create an unfavorable impression of Howe and other leaders. And Howe, in the press, wrote articles and poems to make the governor odious and ridiculous. The people of the country were against Lord Falkland and his government. He was constrained to give up his office, and he was succeeded by **Sir John Harvey**, late governor of New Brunswick. The "Political Pacifier," as Sir John was called, attempted to form a coalition government, but Howe and the Reformers would have nothing to do with it. They bided their time. The Imperial Government was now in favor of the principle of responsibility. A copy of Earl Grey's despatch confirming the Russell despatch on the "tenure of office," was in the hands of the government on the eve of a general election, but it was only published after Howe and his party had won the victory. The long fight **1848** was over; **responsible government was established**, and Howe became the leader of the new administration.

262. **In New Brunswick under the popular rule of Sir**

John Harvey there was tolerable political harmony. Party feeling was not so strong there as in Nova Scotia. Parties in favor of and against change in its form of government were so equally divided, that a resolution to give effect to the rules concerning the "tenure of office," given in Lord John Russell's despatch, was defeated in the Assembly by the casting vote of the Speaker (who only votes when there is an equal number of votes for and against any measure). The Speaker was Charles Simonds, who went on the first delegation to England (1832) to negotiate with the British Government for the surrender of the casual and territorial revenue. He and others who were Reformers up to the time of the passing of the "Civil List Bill," stopped short and would not have "the new and improved Constitution" (as Sir John called it), as put down in the Russell despatch. Sir John Harvey was appointed governor of Newfoundland in 1841, and before leaving New Brunswick was presented with a handsome service of plate. His successor was Major-General Sir William Colebrooke. The province did not seem to have profited much by the surrender of the casual and territorial revenue to the Assembly. The large surplus was all spent, and the province was in debt, and the government was seeking to borrow money. The colonial secretary, Mr. Stanley, told the government that the bad financial position of the province was owing to the improvident way in which the members of Assembly voted away the revenues. In their hands was "the initiation of the money grants" and he thought that the government should introduce all measures involving the expenditure of money, as the government of the Canadas now did. But it was not until 1855 that the Assembly surrendered its right.

263. In 1842 a general election took place, and, the Reform Party was beaten at the polls. When the legislature met, addresses were passed in which members of both

branches united to praise Sir Charles Metcalfe for the stand he had taken. It was not very long until the governor acted on the right claimed by Sir Charles. **Hon. William Odell**, who had held the office of provincial secretary since 1818, died in 1844 on Christmas Day. Sir William then appointed his son-in-law, **Mr. A. Reade**, to the office. Some members of his Council said the governor had the right to make the appointment, but they did not like this particular appointment. The others denied that the governor had the right, and claimed that all appointments of honor and emolument should be given to natives, and settled inhabitants of the province. The colonial secretary did not sanction the appointment, and it was given to **Hon. J. Simcoe Saunders**.

264. In the session of 1848, **Mr. Charles Fisher**, one of the members of York county, moved a resolution expressing approval of Earl Grey's despatch on the "tenure of office," and it was carried by a large majority. So, also, in New Brunswick, "responsible government" 1848 was established. Messrs Wilmot and Fisher, the leading Reformers, entered the government. Sir William Colebrooke was, in this year, appointed governor of British Guiana, and he was succeeded by Sir Edmund Head, the first civilian regularly appointed to the office.

CHAPTER XIX.

AFTER RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

265. By the establishment of responsible government the people of the British North American provinces became free men; they had a voice in the direction of affairs; by their votes they could elect representatives who would reform old abuses, and pass new, beneficial measures. And, after 1848, they had not only free constitutional

government—they were commercially free—free to trade with any part of the world, and to import any articles they pleased from any country. The Imperial Government no longer regulated their commerce or discriminated in their favor. **In 1846 the British corn laws were repealed**, by which duties had been placed on wheat from foreign countries, and Great Britain entered into free trade with the whole world. Thus the provinces were in the same position as the United States and other foreign countries that could send their wheat and agricultural produce, their lumber and other products, to any port in the United Kingdom, where no duties were levied upon them. And in 1849 the British **navigation laws were repealed**, and the vessels of American and foreign ship-owners were placed on the same footing as vessels built and owned in the United Kingdom and the provinces, and were perfectly free to compete with the latter in carrying manufacturers' products to and from Great Britain and its colonies.

266. The people of the British North American provinces complained that Great Britain was casting them off. The Imperial Government instructed Lord Elgin to negotiate with the government of the United States in order to establish free trade between that country and Canada and the maritime provinces. The negotiations ended satisfactorily in 1854, and on the 5th of June the **Reciprocity Treaty was concluded at Washington** to continue in force for ten years. The United States participated in the rich fisheries of British North America, but gave nothing equivalent in return. But though the Americans had the best of the bargain, the treaty was a **great boon to the provinces**.

267. In the Canadas the people had long felt that they ought to have the control over their local affairs. In Upper Canada in 1849, and in Lower Canada in 1850,

"municipal institutions," similar to those in the United States, were established. The maintenance of the poor, the schools, roads, and bridges; the building of court-houses and jails, and many other matters in the cities, towns, villages, and townships, were put upon the people, for which they were directly taxed. Since 1854 municipal institutions have been established in several of the counties of New Brunswick and of Nova Scotia; but the people still look to their legislatures for the main support of their schools, and of their roads and bridges.

268. The construction of a system of canals was commenced in 1817, to overcome the obstructions in the St. Lawrence from numerous rapids and falls, and to open up an uninterrupted course of navigation from Lakes Erie and Ontario by the St. Lawrence to the Gulf and ocean. The Lachine canal, and the Welland canal on a small scale, were constructed. After the union of 1841, the Williamsburg, Cornwall, and Beauharnois canals were built to overcome the obstructions in the St. Lawrence from Prescott and Lake St. Peter, and the Welland canal was enlarged. The canal system was finished so far in 1846, but it has since been greatly enlarged and extended. A mania to build railways seized the people of Canada and the maritime provinces. Lord Durham recommended the building of an intercolonial railway. Attempts to carry out the project were made between 1847-52, with the view of making it a joint undertaking. Negotiations were renewed three times between 1852 and 1864, but were on every occasion frustrated by some misunderstanding. Not until the provinces entered into confederation (1867) was the building of the Intercolonial Railway made certain.

269. The first great railway projects commenced in the Canadas (1850) were the St. Lawrence and Atlantic line, connecting Montreal with Portland, U. S., the Great West-

ern between Sarnia and Niagara, and the Grand Trunk (1852) between Montreal and Toronto, and Quebec and Rivière du Loup. In New Brunswick (1852) the St. John and Shediac line was commenced; in Nova Scotia (1855) the line between Halifax, Windsor, and Truro — both links in the chain of the European and North American line, which was to connect Halifax with St. John and the United States. The railway system of the Canadas and the maritime provinces has been vastly extended since the first great lines were built.

270. After the union great attention was given to the subject of **common school education**. A system giving a course of sound elementary education to every child free of charge, and supported by an annual grant from the legislature, and direct taxation of the people, was established in 1846, in Upper Canada. A somewhat similar system was given to Lower Canada in 1850. It was not until 1864 that a system of free common schools was established in Nova Scotia during the administration of Hon. Dr. Tupper (Sir Charles Tupper); and in New Brunswick not until 1871, when Hon. George E. King (Judge King) was leader of the government, was the Free School Act passed.

271. In this year (1859) the "**Clergy Reserves**" question which had excited much jealousy among all the religious bodies of Upper Canada, was **settled**. It has been stated that the clergy of the Church of England claimed that they alone had a right to these reserves. But, in time, the clergy of the Church of Scotland insisted on having, and obtained, a share of them. By the Act of Settlement the Church of England was separated from the state, it was no longer an established church. Out of the proceeds of the Clergy Reserves, provision was made to pay the incumbents of the rectories, sums equivalent to their stipends, and, also, annuities to the widows and

children of clergymen; and the Church of Scotland out of these proceeds received a sum which constituted the "Temporality Fund," out of which stipends of its clergy were paid. The remaining "Clergy Reserves" and funds were divided among the municipalities according to population.

272. The first steps were taken to abolish the "Fendal Tenure" in Lower Canada in 1855. The censitaires — the holders of lots of land within the seigneuries — became impatient of the state of semi-vassalage in which they were held. In 1859 the reform was fully carried out. The opposition of the seigneurs to it was overcome by the province contributing £650,000 currency (\$2,600,000) to indemnify them, and by a small amount also paid them by the censitaires.

CHAPTER XX.

CONFEDERATION PROPOSED.

273. At the time of the union, 1841, the population of Upper Canada was 236,000 less than that of Lower Canada. In 1851 the population of Lower Canada was 60,000 less than that of Upper Canada. It was then evident that the western British province was fast outstripping the eastern French province in population, as it was also in general progress. In 1853 the number of representatives in the Assembly was increased from eighty-four to one hundred and thirty, giving sixty-five members to each section of the union. The men in Upper Canada who led public opinion began to ask, "Should not the western British province have a representation in Parliament in proportion to its numbers?"

274. It was dangerous to attempt to disturb the equality of representation given by the act of union to the two

Canadas. The two sections were very jealous of each other, and the agitation of an exasperating question like "**representation by population**" increased that jealousy, and roused up passions as strong as those which, in Lower Canada, in the years before responsible government, made all legislation impossible, and brought about what is called a deadlock.

275. Government was carried on by party; and it was necessary that a government should have the support of a majority of the members of a certain party in parliament. The British were divided into two parties, Conservatives (the term Tory was not now used) and Liberals, or Reformers — *Grits*. The French-Canadians were divided into *Bleus* (Blues, i. e., Conservatives) and *Rouges* (Reds, i. e., Liberals or Radicals). The leader of the British Conservatives was John A. Macdonald, the leader of the French-Canadian *Bleus* was George E. Cartier. The British Conservatives were a minority of all the British members, but the French-Canadian *Bleus* were a majority of all the French-Canadian members; and the latter by throwing their strength on the side of the former, made up a total Conservative majority, which enabled the leaders, Macdonald and Cartier, who worked in perfect harmony, to generally manage to keep their party in power.

276. The chief leaders of the British Liberal party were J. Sandfield McDonald, and George Brown, the editor of the Toronto "Globe;" of the French-Canadian *Rouges*, Dorion and Sicotte. These two parties, that is, the British and French-Canadian Conservatives and Liberals, became in time so equally divided that frequent collisions between them took place, and neither party could carry on the government. The jealousies between the western and eastern sections of the union, and the state of parties, caused thoughtful men anxiety as to the future of the provinces. The Liberals of Upper Canada were continually agitating

the question of representation by population. Their aim was to have an overwhelming majority in parliament, which would enable their leaders to carry out their policy with regard to non-sectarian schools, public works, trade, and the Northwest Territory.

277. The French Canadians were utterly opposed to the principle of representation by population, as they feared that if the British were all-powerful in parliament their language, laws, and peculiar customs would be in danger. They were determined to stand by their nationality at all hazards. In order to endeavor to allay the jealousies between the two sections, a suggestion was made that the legislative union should be broken up and a federal union substituted. Mr. Alexander T. Galt, member for Sherbrooke, in an able speech in parliament proposed a confederation of all the provinces as the best means of allaying the sectional jealousies of the Canadas, and advancing the prosperity of British North America. It 1857 will be remembered that Lord Durham in 1839 suggested such a confederation.

278. Under a Federal union of the two provinces, or a confederation of all the provinces, a general parliament would be established which would have power to legislate on matters of common concern, — as among others — raising revenue by customs, trade, commerce, banks, fisheries, militia, — and a local legislature in each province of the federation or confederation to have control of local matters, — as administration of justice, education, management of Crown lands, agriculture. It was expected that under either the larger or the smaller union, Upper Canada, in the general parliament, would have a representation based on the principle of population, and Lower Canada in its local legislature would preserve intact its laws, language, and peculiar institutions.

279. In 1858 the difficulty of carrying on government in Canada, owing to the causes so often mentioned, began to

grow very great. It has been stated that after the seat of government was removed from Montreal, the course was adopted of transferring it to Quebec and Toronto every four years alternately. This course was found to be both troublesome and expensive. The question of fixing the permanent site was referred to the Queen, and her Majesty fixed on Bytown, to which the name "Ottawa" was given. The Macdonald and Cartier government introduced a resolution to give effect to the choice of the Queen, but it was defeated. A dissolution and general election took place, and the Liberal party had a very small majority. But the Liberal Brown and Dorion government was defeated a few days after parliament met. Then the former Conservative government came back to power under the style of the Cartier and Macdonald government, and its members did not go back for election. The Liberals were very angry at the way the governor-general had allowed the Conservative party to come back to power. This incident increased the bitterness of feeling between the two parties.

280. Mr. Galt entered the Cartier and Macdonald government. They adopted **Confederation** as their policy. But the Assembly was indifferent to the subject. When the project was submitted to the colonial secretary he looked coolly upon it. The politicians of Nova Scotia thought that it would be better to have a legislative union of the maritime provinces. The people of New Brunswick were quite content with their political condition. In fact, what with their sectional strifes, party quarrels, and the very depressed state of their trade, the Canadas did not at that time appear to be a desirable country to unite with.

CHAPTER XXI.

CONFEDERATION CARRIED.

281. THE eight years from 1860 to 1867 were full of events of interest and importance to the people of the North American continent. The Canadas had had their great political difficulties, and all the provinces their periods of hard times; still **British North America made great progress after 1841** in population, wealth, in enlightenment by means of schools, universities, and the press, and in the construction of great public works. It has been mentioned that the Grand Trunk Railway was commenced in 1852; in 1860 the main line, with its approach to Montreal by the magnificent **Victoria bridge** over the St. Lawrence, was all but completed. The Canadian government invited the Queen to visit the provinces ¹⁸⁶⁰ and fasten the last rivet on the bridge, and lay the cornerstone of the **new Parliamentary Buildings in Ottawa**. Her Majesty deputed her eldest son, the heir apparent, to be her representative. **The Prince of Wales**, accompanied by the Duke of Newcastle, colonial secretary, and "a brilliant suite," sailed in the "Hero," and **landed in St. John's, Newfoundland, on July 23d**. From thence the Prince sailed to Halifax, and from that city made a tour of the maritime provinces, and was everywhere received by great crowds with the most cordial loyalty. All the chief cities gave the Prince a magnificent reception. On the 20th of September the royal party crossed the line, and from Detroit made a tour of the western and northern States, and as far south as Richmond, Virginia. The "Hero" sailed for England from Portland, Maine, on the 20th of October.

282. Things now were in a very bad way in the United States. The country had grown amazingly rich and pros-

perous; but it was divided, North against South, and their people were opposed to each other on most important questions,—slavery and the tariff. In the North the people mainly belonged to the Republican party. In the South the people were Democrats. The Republicans wished to confine slavery to the States where it was established and protected by the Constitution, and to exclude it from all territories hereafter to be brought into the union. They had no thought yet of abolishing slavery. The Democrats would have no limits put to the extension of slavery. The people of the North wanted high duties placed on all imports to protect their manufactures. The people of the cotton-rice-tobacco-raising South, who did not manufacture anything, and imported mostly everything they needed, wanted low duties and free trade. The Democratic party had long held the government, but now power was slipping from it. In November, 1860, **Abraham Lincoln**, a Republican, was elected President. On the 20th December, 1860, South Carolina seceded from the union, and before long ten other States followed her example. The **Southern Confederacy** was formed, and Jefferson Davis elected its President. “Fort Sumter,”
1861 held by government troops, was bombarded by the secessionists, and surrendered to them on the 13th of April. So the civil war of secession commenced. A month afterwards the British government put forth a royal proclamation, calling on all loyal subjects everywhere to preserve neutrality in the war. The government and the people of the United States were very angry at this proclamation, which they said was an acknowledgment that the Southern Confederacy was a nation, whereas they held it was merely a banding together of rebels.

283. On the 8th of November Captain Wilkes, in the United States steamship **San Jacinto**, stopped the British

mail packet "**Trent**," and forcibly carried off Mason and Slidell, Southern commissioners bound to England. People in the North exulted over this exploit of the bold Wilkes. The British Government demanded the commissioners' return on pain of a declaration of war, and troops were hurriedly sent across the Atlantic. Before the troops arrived in St. John, New Brunswick, President Lincoln, on the 1st of January, quietly gave up the 1862 commissioners.

284. Soon afterwards the Imperial Government sent out officers to **organize the militia** and inspect the defensible places of the British North American provinces. It was well to prepare for war, for the people of the North, after the "Trent" affair, were more angry with Great Britain than ever. The majority of the people of Great Britain sympathized with the North and its cause, but an influential minority certainly wished the South success. Besides, parties aided the cause of the secessionists by permitting their privateers — the "**Alabama**" among others — to escape from British ports to destroy or capture the merchant-vessels of the North; and British captains "ran the blockade," — sailed their vessels, filled with supplies of all kinds, to southern ports, taking their chance of escaping the American war vessels that were vigilantly cruising along the southern coasts.

285. The **Cartier and Macdonald government**, in the session of 1862, brought in a militia bill, among other measures. But they had not sufficient support in the Assembly to enable them to carry it. They **resigned**, and a Liberal government, under the leadership of J. S. McDonald and A. Sicotte, took their place. The Imperial Government was **displeased at the loss of the militia bill** at so critical a time, and many people in England said that the provinces were not loyal, and that they were not worth retaining. But they were mistaken. The people of the provinces, gene-

rally, argued in this way about the defence question: "If war comes, it will not come because of anything we have done to *provoke* it, but because Great Britain and the United States have quarrelled; therefore it is not right to call on us to assume a burden for our defence beyond our resources, though we are quite willing to bear a fair share."

286. The J. S. McDonald and Sicotte government did not stand long. But they were in power long enough to defeat an arrangement between the Imperial Government and all the provinces to build the Intercolonial Railway. M. Sicotte then withdrew from the government, and M. Dorion succeeded him, parliament was dissolved, and a general election took place. J. S. McDonald and Dorion had a majority, but one too small to enable them to carry on the government. Then came a crisis. The old Conservative administration, with Sir Etienne Taché as leader, came back to power, but at the end of four months it was defeated. Things had now come to a **deadlock**; neither party, Conservative nor Liberal, could carry on the business of the country.

287. Then, when affairs had come to the worst, good sense and good feeling prevailed. The Liberal leaders joined with the Conservative leaders and formed a **coalition government**, with the object of forming either a federal union of the Canadas or a confederation of all the provinces.

288. At Charlottetown, in September, delegates from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick met representatives of
1864 Prince Edward Island to discuss the question of a legislative union of the maritime provinces. Members of the Canadian government asked, and were granted, permission to join the conference. They brought forward their project of a confederation of the provinces in so alluring a manner that the maritime representatives dismissed the

smaller legislative union from their mind. Important events followed.

289. On the 10th of October, a Monday, twenty-one gentlemen—the leading members of the government and opposition parties of the four maritime provinces—met the twelve members of the Canadian government, in a chamber in the legislative building of **Quebec**, to draw up a scheme of confederation. They sat day after day with closed doors. Their labors were finished on the 27th, and the members of the conference parted with the understanding that they should keep matters quiet, and that the different governments should submit the **Quebec scheme**, as it was called, to their respective Assemblies, and carry it through the legislatures without permitting the slightest alteration in its form. But the understanding was not kept.

290. The people in the Provinces were taken by surprise. Many liked the idea of the union of the provinces, but did not like the scheme. There was great opposition to it in the maritime provinces. In New Brunswick the House was dissolved, and a general election took place to test the opinion of the people on the question. Before it was held the Canadian Parliament met, in February, and resolutions embodying the scheme were submitted to the **1865** Legislative Council and the Assembly. In the midst of the discussion the government received intelligence that the scheme had been defeated in New Brunswick, and that a strong anti-confederate government had been formed. The government put a stop to the discussions. A vote on the resolutions was taken, and they were carried by a large majority. An address to the queen based upon them was drawn up, and a delegation appointed to proceed to England to entreat the Imperial Government to use its influence to induce New Brunswick to reconsider its decision.

291. If New Brunswick had held out there would have been no confederation. Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland dropped the scheme, and in Nova Scotia opposition to it led by Joseph Howe grew very strong.

292. **The civil war came to a close** in April, 1865. The Southern Confederacy was broken up—the South vanquished and slavery abolished. The end was marked by a tragic deed. President Lincoln was assassinated as he sat in his box in the theatre, by Wilkes Booth, an actor and Southern sympathizer. After the war the people of the North were still angry at Great Britain, and not well-disposed to the British North American provinces. They put forth the “Alabama” claims; that is, they demanded compensation for the damage done to their commerce by Southern cruisers sailing from British ports. Southern desperadoes found refuge in Canada during the war, and organized raids against frontier American towns. The people of the North were in so bad a mood that they refused to renew the “Reciprocity Treaty,” which ended this year, on equitable or acceptable terms. And at this time bands of marauders, “Irish patriots,” members of the **Fenian Brotherhood**, whom the peace had let loose to commit acts of violence, were threatening to invade Ireland and conquer Canada. In the winter, while the New Brunswick legislature was sitting, a body of them seized **1866** Campbellobello, and threatened to assault the province by way of St. Stephens and St. Andrews. But they dispersed quickly on the appearance of the military and volunteers.

293. **The colonial secretary, Mr. Cardwell**, used his influence to break down the opposition to confederation in New Brunswick, and he was aided by Governor Gordon and the Legislative Council, whose members were in favor of it. The anti-confederate Smith-Hatheway government was constrained to resign. A confederate government was formed, with Mr. Tilley as leader. A general elec-

tion took place, and this government was sustained by a very large majority. The Quebec scheme was then passed through the legislature.

294. The Conservative government of Nova Scotia, led by (Sir) Charles Tupper, then appointed delegates to proceed to London, and, along with the delegates from Canada and New Brunswick, to perfect a measure of union. To London also went the leader of the anti-confederates, **Joseph Howe**, who endeavored to turn the British government against confederation, but his arguments were answered with telling effect by **Dr. Tupper**. The delegates met and made a few amendments to "the Quebec scheme." The "scheme" formed the constitution embodied in the "**British North America Act**," which was passed in the Imperial Parliament March 27, 1867.

295. On the 1st of July the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were united by royal proclamation in one Dominion, under the name of Canada. In December the Dominion Parliament met in the new buildings at Ottawa.

CHAPTER XXII.

NORTHWEST TERRITORY.

296. "THE **British North America Act**" made the union of the four senior provinces a fact, but much remained to be done before union was completed.

297. **Viscount Monck** saw the opening and close of the first session of the first parliament in Ottawa. In 1868 the course of the session a tragic deed cast a gloom over the Dominion. **Hon. D'Arcy McGee**, known as an orator and a poet, who had taken a leading part in bringing about the confederation of the provinces, was shot dead by

Patrick Whelan, an Irishman, and his countryman, after midnight, April 7th, as he was entering his hotel. This deed was an outcome of the Fenian movement after the close of the civil war in the United States. Sir John Young (Lord Lisgar) succeeded Viscount Monck in November. In this year, Hon. W. Howland was appointed lieutenant-governor of Ontario; Sir N. F. Belleau, of Quebec; Major-General Hastings Doyle, of Nova Scotia; and Hon. Lemuel Allan Wilmot, of New Brunswick.

298. During the first years of Lord Lisgar's term the irritating question of the "Alabama claims" remained open. And a portion of the Liberal party in Great Britain, not the mass of the people, showed themselves for some time to be not well disposed to the Dominion, by expressing indifference to the continuation of the connection between Canada and the parent state. The people were bluntly told that it was time they set up for themselves. In Canada some parties raised the cry of "Independence." But the feeling in Great Britain was only temporary, and the people in Canada had no desire for independence.

299. Though Nova Scotia had been brought into the confederation, a large portion of its people was very hostile to it. In the Dominion Parliament only three of their representatives were "Unionists." The local government, led by Hon. William Annand and Joseph Howe, worked and agitated for a "repeal of the union." The premier of the Dominion, Sir John A. Macdonald, opened correspondence with Howe with the best result. The province
1869 received "better terms," i. e. the amount of its debt assumed by the Dominion was increased, and it was granted an additional annual subsidy for ten years. Howe entered the Dominion Government and was made president of the Executive Council.

300. The Hudson Bay Company finally ceded the north-

west territory to the Dominion in this year. It obtained in compensation \$1,500,000 in money, grants of land around their posts equal to fifty thousand acres in all, a right to the twentieth part of the land laid out for settlement south of the northern branch of the Saskatchewan River, and it retained all its privileges of trade.

301. The great northwest territory, which figures so largely in the contemporary history of Canada, was little known till a few years before the time of confederation. The Reform party in Upper Canada was bent on acquiring it in order to increase the influence of the British element in the parliament of the two Canadas. To join it and British Columbia to the confederation was the settled policy of the statesmen who took a leading part in bringing that scheme about. It is necessary to give a very brief history of the northwest territory. In the old times both French and English claimed it. In 1670 Charles II. ceded the territory, to which the British Crown had but a doubtful claim, to a company, the Hudson Bay Company, which was incorporated by Royal Charter that year. By the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, Louis XIV. of France relinquished all claims to the territory. Its boundaries were defined in the treaty, but vaguely enough to encourage the company to claim that its possessions stretched to the Rocky Mountains, and included the great tract which has its centre in Lake Winnipeg, into which flow the Saskatchewan, Red, and Assiniboine rivers. The headquarters of the company was at Fort Factory on the Nelson Bay in Hudson Bay. Here their governor ruled over an immense force of traders, clerks, servants, voyageurs, in the several districts in which the territory was divided. The Indian hunters brought their furs to the different stations, and exchanged them for guns, ammunition, blankets, tobacco, and other

articles. The company enjoyed great and uninterrupted prosperity for many years.

302. In 1784 certain Scotchmen of Montreal formed the **Northwest Company**, and had territory granted to them. They established posts by the shores of Lake Winnipeg and on **Red River**, in a country to which the Hudson Bay Company laid exclusive claim. This company also enjoyed great prosperity, until their employés engaged in a bloody feud with the employés of its rival over the disputed territory.

303. In 1812 the **Earl of Selkirk** purchased from the Hudson Bay Company a large tract of country along the courses of the Red and Assiniboine rivers, and sent out a party of **Scotchmen**, and afterwards of Norwegians and French-Canadians, to form a settlement. This settlement the "**Northwest**" people said was an encroachment upon their territory. The feuds between the rival companies grew more bitter and more bloody; and in these feuds the people of the Red River settlement suffered very severely. In 1816 Sir James Drummond, then governor-general of Canada, sent out a regiment to Red River to protect the settlers and keep the peace. While their employés were fighting the profits of the rival companies dwindled down to nothing. Then they saw the folly of their quarrel, and they **joined partnership** under the name of the **Hudson Bay Company**, and their prosperity returned.

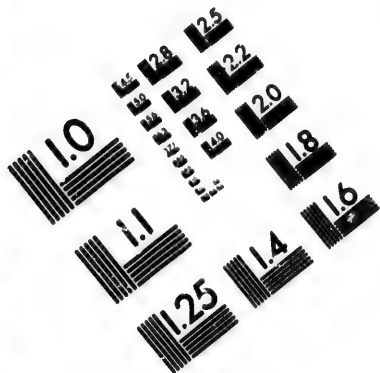
304. After the **Red River settlement** was left in peace from human foes, its people endured much from the plague of grasshoppers, the floods, and extreme frosts, but they increased in numbers. In 1867 they numbered 12,000, and they formed too large a settlement to be governed by a company, and a portion of them commenced to agitate for annexation to Canada. But some, especially the French-Canadians, were very averse to this movement. The Dominion Government opened up negotiations with the

Hudson Bay Company, which, as before stated, were closed in 1870.

305. In that year a new province was organized in the Red River country, the seat of the Selkirk settlement, called **Manitoba**, and added to the Dominion. The proposed organization of this new British province was opposed by a party in the Red River settlement. **Louis Riel**, **M. Lepine**, and others took forcible charge of the government at Fort Garry. Riel was elected President, and he compelled the settlers to obey his despotic rule. He threatened to take the lives of some who disputed his sway. He had an Upper Canadian, **Thomas Scott**, tried by court-martial and shot. This outrageous deed excited great indignation throughout the Dominion. The Hon. **William McDougall**, who was appointed governor of the Northwest in 1869, on entering the settlement, was met by Riel and his band of conspirators and compelled to retire to **Pembina** in the United States. It then became necessary for the British Government to put down the rebellion, and assert its sovereignty over **Manitoba**. The **Red River expedition** was organized,—composed of 1,200 men, British regulars and Canadian militia, under Colonel **Garnet Wolseley**,—and, accompanied by a large party of boatmen, voyageurs, and Indians, left **Thunder Bay**, on **Lake Superior**, in June, and, after a most toilsome journey of five hundred miles, reached **Fort Garry** in August. Riel and his council fled, as the van of the expedition, the advanced companies of the 60th Rifles, entered the fort. When **Hon. A. G. Archibald**, the governor of **Manitoba**, arrived at **Winnipeg (Fort Garry)** he found no difficulty in establishing his government.

306. At first, it may as well be stated here, the whole of the Northwest Territory was attached to the government of **Manitoba**, and its government was conducted by the lieutenant-governor and a council of twenty-four mem-





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bers. In 1876 it was separated into two divisions, the easterly division, which was named **Keewatin**, was placed under the jurisdiction of the governor of Manitoba; the westerly division, which retained the name of the Northwest Territory, was placed under a separate government consisting of a governor and council. In 1881 the province of Manitoba was enlarged by the addition of a portion of the Northwest Territory. And, in 1882, the westerly division of the Northwest Territory was divided into four Districts: **Assinibola, Albert, Saskatchewan and Athabaska.**

307. In May of 1870 the Fenians assembled at different points on the frontier of Canada and threatened invasion. One party crossed the line and marched a few miles into Lower Canada, but it was checked by a body of British regulars and Canadian militia, and beat a hasty retreat. This was the last of the "Fenian scares." Since 1865, Canadian lives had been lost in repelling the raiders, and Canadian property had been destroyed, and the Canadian Government made claim on the United States for compensation. On the 27th of February, 1871, a **Joint High Commission** met at Washington. It was composed of plenipotentiaries appointed by the governments of Great Britain and the United States, to settle 1871 questions at issue between the two countries respecting the Alabama claims — the claims of Canada on account of the Fenian raids — the fisheries, and the question in dispute regarding the possession of the Island of San Juan. **Sir John A. Macdonald** represented the interests of Canada. The Treaty was concluded on the 8th of May. By its articles, the "Alabama claims" were referred to arbitration. (Arbitrators met at Geneva, Switzerland, in 1872, and awarded to the United States, \$15,500,000 damages, which the British Government immediately paid.) Americans were admitted to the shore and coast fisheries of British North America; and British subjects

to the coast fisheries of the United States. As the fishery privileges conceded to the Americans were much more valuable than those conceded to British subjects, a money compensation was to be paid to Canada. (The difference in the value of these fishing privileges was estimated by a Commission which met in Halifax 1878, at \$5,500,000, which sum the United States Government paid). Fish and fish oil were mutually admitted free. The Americans were permitted to use the canals of Canada on equal terms with British subjects, who were permitted to use the St. Clair and Michigan canals of the United States. Canadians were granted the privilege of transshipping goods from port to port on the American side of the Great Lakes, in consideration of the privilege granted to the Americans of freely floating their lumber down the St. John. The New Brunswick Government abrogated the export duty on lumber, and the Dominion Government granted it \$150,000 per annum in place of it. The claims of Canada on account of the Fenian raids were not presented, in consideration of which the British Government gave a guarantee which enabled the Dominion Government to raise a loan, in all, of £5,000,000, on more favorable terms than they could have done without it. The Emperor of Germany, to whom the San Juan question was referred, gave his decision in favor of the United States.

CHAPTER XXIII.

BRITISH COLUMBIA. — PACIFIC RAILWAY.

308. THE Hudson Bay Company commenced to colonize Vancouver Island in 1843. It has fine harbors, and a healthful "delicious" climate, extensive forests of pine and other useful trees, great mineral resources, and rich sea and river fisheries. Victoria, its capital, was, during that year, founded. In 1849 the island became a Crown colony.

309. **British Columbia** came prominently into notice in 1858. Two years before, when it became known that gold had been discovered there, California miners and adventurers from everywhere rushed to the new diggings. In 1858 between twenty and thirty thousand men were scattered over the Rocky Mountain slopes and ravines through which the Frazer River and its tributaries flow. It was necessary to have a firm and fixed government. British Columbia was then **constituted a separate colony**, and **New Westminster**, its seat of government, founded.

310. On the 20th of July, 1871, British Columbia and Vancouver Island, as one province, **entered the Confederation**. By the terms of the union they have a representation in the Dominion Parliament of three members in the Senate, and six in the House of Commons. The most important point was the construction of a line of railway from the Pacific coast, to be connected with the railway system of Canada, and its completion within ten years. The government offered a subsidy of \$30,000,000 in money and 5,000,000 acres of land, in alternate blocks, along the line of railway, to any company undertaking the work.

311. Earl Dufferin succeeded Lord Lisgar in June. 1872 Soon after his arrival in Canada a general election took place, which was very hotly contested in Quebec and Ontario. A charter was granted to the "**Canada Pacific Railway Company**," of which Sir Hugh Allan was president, February 29, 1873. In the course of the session of the new parliament Mr. Huntingdon, 1873 member for Shefford, accused the Dominion Government of giving the contract for the Pacific Railway to Sir Hugh Allan, with whom American capitalists were associated, in consideration of a large sum of money advanced to leading members of the government to enable them to carry the elections in Quebec and Ontario. This charge against the government was referred to a commit-

tee for investigation. And an act was passed (the "Oaths Bill") to enable the members of the committee to examine witnesses under oath. To give the committee time to report, parliament rose in June with the understanding that it should meet for prorogation on the 13th of August. Owing to the appearance of certain letters in the press, the **Pacific scandal**, as it was called, created great excitement throughout the Dominion. The Imperial Government disallowed the "Oaths Bill," so that the committee of investigation had no report in readiness for the meeting of parliament. **Earl Dufferin**, who, with the Countess of Dufferin, had during the summer made a tour through the maritime provinces, was in Halifax in the beginning of August. From thence he proceeded to Ottawa to prorogue parliament on the 18th. An address, signed by ninety-two members, was presented to him, praying him not to prorogue parliament until the House of Commons had made a strict investigation into the charges against the government.

312. The governor-general gave his reasons for not complying with this request. A **royal commission**, composed of three members (judges), was appointed to examine witnesses under oath. Parliament met again on the 13th of October, and Mr. Mackenzie, leader of the opposition, moved a vote of want of confidence in the government. The **Government resigned** before the close of the debate, and the governor-general called on Mackenzie to form a new government. Sir Hugh Allan surrendered his contract for the Pacific Railway, as he was unable to carry it out owing to his failing to obtain the aid of European capitalists in the vast work.

313. On the 1st of July, Dominion Day, **Prince Edward Island** became a province of Canada. It obtained very liberal terms from the Dominion Government, and was granted a representation in parliament, of four members in the Senate, and six in the House of Commons.

314. A general election took place in January and the
1874 **Mackenzie Liberal Government** was sustained by a large majority of the electors. This government remained in power up to near the close of 1878. In 1874 business was much depressed in the United States and Great Britain. The depression was greatly felt in the Dominion. One of the consequences of the depression was a falling off in the revenues. The government had not money to meet their expenditures. The duties imposed on articles imported from abroad are the chief source of revenue of the Dominion. The leaders of the party in opposition — the Liberal-Conservative — maintained, in their speeches in parliament, that the duties on products — articles produced, and that could be manufactured in the Dominion — should be so high as to give protection to Canadian manufacturers. The tariff question was much agitated in the country. When the general election took place in the autumn of 1878 the **Mackenzie government was defeated**, and the government of Sir John A. Macdonald came back to power with a great majority in the House of Commons, pledged to give protection to native industries — to carry
1879 out their "**National Policy**." During the session of 1879 the tariff was readjusted to effect the object the government had in view.

315. In 1878 Earl Dufferin's term of office came to an end. He made himself very popular by the interest he took in all that concerned the Dominion, by his genial temper and eloquent and sympathetic addresses. He was succeeded by the **Marquis of Lorne**, who, with his consort, H. R. H. Princess Louise, arrived in Ottawa in the course of the autumn. Since Lord Lisgar's time in 1868 a change had come over the feeling in Great Britain towards Canada, and the appointment of the Marquis of Lorne, the Queen's son-in-law, was a sign that the connection of Canada with the parent State was valued.

316. The building of the **Canadian Pacific Railway** engaged much of the attention of parliament and people. It was acknowledged by all parties that the contract with British Columbia must be kept, and that the railway was absolutely necessary to promote the settlement of the Northwest Territory, and to develop the trade of the whole country. From 1874 portions of the work were commenced by government; but the work went on slowly and the people of British Columbia were dissatisfied. It is unnecessary in a little book like this to state all that was done to endeavor to advance the work. In the autumn of 1880 the government of Sir John A. Macdonald entered into a contract with a syndicate (a company) of European and Canadian capitalists to build the railway to extend from Callendar Station on Lake Nipissing to Port Moody on the Pacific coast, and to complete it in 1891. To aid the carrying out of the gigantic work the government contracted to give the company a subsidy of \$25,000,000 in cash, and 25,000,000 acres in land, and the portions of railway already constructed or in the course of construction, valued at \$28,000,000, and other facilities. The contract was ratified by parliament in 1880.

317. In 1882 another general election took place, and the government of **Sir John A. Macdonald** was again sustained by a large majority. In the autumn of the following year the Marquis of Lorne, after completing a useful term of office, left Canada. He did much to encourage the cultivation of the arts of painting and sculpture, and through him the Royal Society of Science and Literature was founded. He was succeeded by the Marquis of Lansdowne.

318. The Pacific Railway Company made so great progress with their work that they expected that the railway would be completed in advance of the time set down in the contract, that is, in 1886 instead of 1891. To 1884

enable the company to raise means to complete it by 1886 the government agreed to advance money to them, making altogether a loan of about thirty million dollars, to be repaid in 1891, and to take as security for repayment of the loan a lien (or bond) on the company's property in railways, rolling-stock, and land. This agreement was ratified by the Dominion Parliament.

319. An outline of the principal events in the history of Canada has now been traced. Many incidents in the history of the several provinces have necessarily been passed over. But this book is full enough in detail, we think, to give the young student an idea of the progress which has been made in two hundred and eighty years. Let him look back from the present standpoint of time, from the position Canada has attained to the very small beginnings of its history, and that progress will appear great.

320. Confederation has done much to soften the antipathy of race, the sectional jealousies, the party spirit, in the two Canadas, which broke up the union of 1841; but they are still strong enough to make it evident that, unless kept in check, the future of Canada will not be free from the difficulties and dangers that beset it in the past. In the years since Confederation, Canada has made great commercial, manufacturing, and industrial progress; vast territory has been annexed; great works have been completed; and great works are being carried out to develop the older and younger parts of the Dominion; and great expenditures have been made for that end. And in these years much has been done for the intellectual and moral advancement of its people. And since confederation, and through it, Canada has gained a position of independence and importance in relation to other countries which the provinces, separated, could not have attained.

CHAPTER XXIV.

CONSTITUTION OF THE CONFEDERATION.

321. **THE British North America Act of 1867 established the Constitution of the Confederation.** The four senior provinces, Upper Canada, or, as now called, **Ontario**, Lower Canada, or **Quebec**, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, originally constituted the Dominion of Canada. Between 1870 and 1873 Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, and British Columbia became members of it.

322. By the act there is a **general parliament**, the seat of which is Ottawa, for all the provinces, and a local legislature for each of the provinces, the seats of which are Toronto, Quebec, Halifax, Fredericton, Charlottetown, Winnipeg, and Victoria.

323. **The executive authority over Canada is vested in the Queen**, and administered by her representative, the governor-general, who is aided and advised by a privy council of thirteen members. The governor-general, under the Queen, has command of the land and sea forces; he has no direct personal power; for all the acts of his government the Privy (Executive) Council is responsible to the representatives of the people.

324. **The general parliament consists of the governor-general, the Senate, and House of Commons.**

325. **The Senate consists of seventy-seven (77) members**—Ontario 24, Quebec 24, Nova Scotia 10, New Brunswick, 10, Prince Edward Island 4, British Columbia 3, Manitoba 2. The Senators are appointed by the Crown, that is, by the governor-general, on advice of his Council, and hold their seats for life. They must reside in the province for which they are appointed, and be worth \$4,000 in property. The Speaker of the Senate is appointed by the governor-general, by advice of his Council.

326 The House of Commons (now) consists of two hundred and eleven (211) members — Ontario 92, Quebec 65, Nova Scotia 21, New Brunswick 16, Prince Edward Island 6, British Columbia 6, Manitoba 5. The number of members may from time to time be increased by parliament, provided each province receives its due proportion of members. Sixty-five is the fixed number for Quebec; no addition by the Act will be made to it; and each will receive such a number as bears the same ratio to its population as the number of sixty-five bears to the population of Quebec. The House of Commons continues for a term of five years, unless sooner dissolved by the governor-general. It elects its speaker, who presides at all meetings of the House, but only votes when the voices are equal. Either the English or French language may be used in parliament in debate and for recording its proceedings. All bills to appropriate the public revenue originate in the House.

327. This general parliament has exclusive jurisdiction over such matters as the public debt and property, trade and commerce, raising money on the credit of the Dominion by taxation or loan, the postal service, militia, fisheries, navigation, banks, currency, coinage, bankruptcy, marriage and divorce, criminal law, public works, and, — in common with the local legislatures, — over agriculture and immigration.

328. The governor-general has discretionary power to give or withhold his assent, in the Queen's name, to bills passed by the Commons and Senate, and reserve them for the signification of Her Majesty's pleasure (*i. e.*, until they receive the approval or meet the disapproval of the Imperial Government), which may be signified within two years. The governor-general may disallow bills passed by the local legislatures within a year after their passing.

329. Under the British North America Act, a lieutenant-governor is appointed for each province by the gov-

ernor-general in council, who holds office for a term of five years. Ontario and British Columbia have a legislature, consisting of the lieutenant-governor, and a Legislative Assembly; all the other provinces have legislatures of the three branches.

330. The local legislatures have exclusive jurisdiction over such matters as making amendments to the Constitution of the provinces, direct taxation, borrowing money on the credit of the provinces, management and sale of lands belonging to the provinces, prisons and reformatories, hospitals, municipal institutions, local works, property and civil rights, education.

331. The General Government takes charge of the duties and revenues collected in the several provinces. These form one consolidated "revenue fund," from which the charges of the public service are paid. It assumes, to a specified extent, the debts of the provinces, and pays certain annual subsidies, and "extraordinary grants" for the support of their local governments.

332. Public works and property in all the provinces belong to the Dominion, such as canals, harbors, light-houses, steamships, railways, custom-houses, post-offices, armories; lands, mines, and minerals, and the revenues derived from them belong to the provinces. There is free trade in all produce of the soil and articles of manufacture between the provinces.

LEADING DATES OF ENGLISH PERIOD.

	A. D.
Treaty of Paris, February 10	1763
Quebec Act passed	1774
Revolutionary War	1775
Independence of United States	1782
Treaty of Paris, September 8	1783
Landing of the Loyalists, May 18	1783
Constitutional Act passed	1791

Island of St. John named Prince Edward Island	1794
President Madison declares War against Great Britain	1812
Battle of Queenston Heights, October 13	1813
York (Toronto) captured by Americans	1813
Battle of Lundy's Lane, June	1814
Treaty of Ghent, December 14	1814
Fire at Miramichi	1825
Rebellion in Lower and Upper Canada	1837-38
Arrival of Earl Durham, May	1838
Union of the Two Canadas	1841
Responsible Government established in Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick	1848
Lord Elgin assents to Rebellion Losses Bill. — Montreal Parliament Buildings burned, April 25	1849
Reciprocity Treaty	1854
Visit of Prince of Wales to Canada	1860
War of Secession commenced, April	1861
Quebec Conference	1864
Close of War of Secession, April 9	1865
British North America Act passed	1867
Red River Expedition	1870
Treaty of Washington	1871
Resignation of the Macdonald Ministry	1873
St. John Fire, June 20*	1877
Mackenzie Government defeated	1878
National Policy inaugurated	1879
Contract with Canada Pacific Syndicate	1881
General Election. — Macdonald Government sustained	1882

* This fire was the most disastrous of the several great fires which have devastated St. John. It swept over an area containing 200 acres, and destroyed the chief business streets; and, it is computed, sixteen hundred houses, including churches and principal public buildings.

which
acres,
xteen
gs.

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY.

KEY TO THE REPRESENTATION OF SOUNDS.

ē , as in <i>pate</i> .	ō , as in <i>bone</i> .	ū , <i>u</i> , <i>eu</i> , — see Note.
ā , as in <i>pat</i> .	ō , as in <i>pot</i> .	g , always hard, as in <i>go</i> .
ai , as in <i>pair</i> .	oo , as in <i>moon</i> .	j , as <i>g</i> in <i>gin</i> .
ah , as <i>a</i> in <i>balm</i> .	i , as in <i>pine</i> .	zh , as <i>z</i> in <i>azure</i> .
aw , as <i>a</i> in <i>ball</i> .	i , as in <i>pin</i> .	ñ , the French nasal sound, softer than <i>ng</i> .
ē , or <i>ee</i> , as in <i>meet</i> .	ū , as in <i>mute</i> .	
ē , as in <i>met</i> .	u , as in <i>nut</i> or <i>turn</i> .	

NOTE. — The letter **ū** represents the French "mute e," somewhat like *u* in *but*. *U* and *eu*, in *italics*, represent the French sounds of those letters, which have no English equivalent. The sound of *ng* or of *n* may be used instead of the French nasal.

Abenaqui . . .	Ah-ben-ah'kee.	Bouquet . . .	Boo-kā'.
Acadie, or Aca-	Ah'kah-dee, or	Bourbon . . .	Boor-bōh'.
dia . . . }	A-cā'di-a.	Bourgade . . .	Boor-gahd'.
Agricola . . . }	A-gric'o-lah.	Breboeuf . . .	Brū-beuf'.
Aix-la-Chapelle	Aks-lah-shah-pel'.	Bressani . . .	Brēs-sah'nē.
Albanet . . .	Al'ban-el.	Bretagne . . .	Brū-tahn'yū.
Algonquin . . .	Al-gōñ-kāñ'.	Brouage . . .	Broo-ahzh'.
Allouez . . .	Al-oo-ā'.	Brougham . . .	Broo'am.
Allumette . . .	Al-u-met'.	Brouillan . . .	Broo-ē-yahñ'.
Amadour . . .	Ah-mah-door'.	Brulé, Etienne	A-te-en' Bru-lā.
Antilles . . .	An-teelz'.	Burgoyne . . .	Bur-goin'.
Assiniboine . . .	As-sin'e-boin.		
Aubry . . .	Ō'bree.	Cabot . . .	Kab'ot.
Avalon . . .	Av'ā-lon.	Cahlague . . .	Kah-e-ahg'.
		Callières . . .	Kah-le-air'.
Baccalao . . .	Bac-ā-lah'ōs.	Canadien . . .	Kah-nah'de-āñ'.
Baigneux . . .	Ban-yeu'.	Canceau, or	Kahñ-so', or Kan'-
Basque . . .	Basq.	Canso . . . }	so.
Baudet . . .	Bo-dā.	Cap Rouge . . .	Kap Roozh.
Beaubassin . . .	Bo'bah-sāñ.	Carquette . . .	Kār-ā-ket'.
Beauharnois . . .	Bo-ar-nā'.	Carignan Sa-	Kar'een-yahñ
Beauport . . . }	Bo-pōr'; Eng. Bo'-	lières . . . }	Sah-le-air'.
	port.	Carillon . . . }	Kar-ē-yōñ'.
Beauséjour . . .	Bo'sā-zhoor'.	Cartier, Jacques	Zhak Kar-te-ā.
Bécancour . . .	Bā'kahñ-koor'.	Cataracoui . . .	Kat'ar-ak-oo-ē'.
Benoit . . .	Ben-waw.	Censitaires . . .	Sahñ-se-tair'.
Bergier . . .	Bair'zhe-ā'.	Chaleur . . .	Shah-leur'.
Blard, Pierre . . .	Pe-air' Be-ar'.	ChAMPLAIN,	Sah-mu-el' dū
Blencourt . . .	Be-āñ-koor'.	Samuel de	Shahñ-plaif'.
Blot . . .	Bē-go.		E. Sham-plān'.
Bois Blanc . . .	Blaw Blahñ.	Charles . . .	Sharl; before <i>a</i>
Boscawen . . .	Bōs-kaw-en'.		vowel, Sharlz.
Bouchet . . .	Boo-shā'.	Charlesbourg	Shar-lū-boor
		Royal . . . }	Rwaw-yah'.

Charnissay . . .	{ Do-nā/ Shar'ne- zā.	François . . .	Frahñ-swaw'.
D'Aulnay . . .	{ Shah'tō-gā'.	Frobisher . . .	Frōb'ish-er.
Chateauguay . . .	{ Shō'de-air'.	Gabarus . . .	Gab-a-roos'.
Chaudière . . .	{ Chahu'zee.	Gallissonnière . . .	Gah'le-sōn'e-air'.
Chauncey . . .	{ She-buk'tō.	Gaspé . . .	Gah-pā.
Chebucto . . .	{ Shep'o-de.	nessee . . .	Jen-es-see'.
Chepody . . .	{ Chip'pe-waw.	hent . . .	Gēnt.
Chippewa . . .	{ Shoo-ah-zhāñ.	Gilbert . . .	{ Fr. Zheel-bair'; Eng. Gill'bert.
Chouagen . . .	{ Kris-leer, or Kris'ler.	Girouard . . .	Zhe-roo-ar'.
Chryster . . .	{ Kōl'bair'.	Goderich . . .	Gōd'rich.
Colbert . . .	{ Kōl'burn.	Grand Fontaine . . .	Grahñ Fōñ-tain'.
Colborne . . .	{ Kom'u-no-tā'.	Grandpré, or Beaupré . . .	{ Grahñ-prā, Bo-pā.
Communauté . . .	{ Kōñ-dā.	Guercheville . . .	Gairsh-veel.
Condé . . .	{ Kōñ-tr-keur.	Guillaume . . .	Gee-y'm'.
Contrecoeur . . .	{ Eel dū Koo'dr.	Havre de Grace . . .	Hah-vr dū Grahss.
Coudres, Isle de . . .	{ Koor-se'.	Hebert . . .	A-bair'.
Courcelles . . .	{ Koo-reur du Bwaw.	Henri . . .	{ Hahñ-ree', or Oñ-rē'.
Coureurs du . . .	{ Koo-tum d'Pah- ree'.	Huguenot . . .	Hū'gē-not.
Coutume de . . .	{ Kralv-koor'.	Hyacinthe . . .	Fr. E-ah-sāñt.
Crevecoeur . . .	{ Dah-yū-boo'.	Hypothèque . . .	E-po-taik'.
D'Ailleboust . . .	{ Dahñ-veel'.	Ignace . . .	Een-yahss.
D'Anville . . .	{ Dar'se Ma gee'.	Iroquois . . .	Ir'o-kwaw.
D'Arcy M'Gee . . .	{ Vē-kōñt' Dar- zhahñ-sōñ.	Isle aux Noix . . .	Eel'o-nwaw.
D'Argenson . . .	{ Dah-vō-goor'.	Jean . . .	Zhahñ.
Viscomte . . .	{ Dah-voo'.	Joliet . . .	Zhol'e-ā.
D'Avagour . . .	{ Deer'burn.	Jonquière . . .	Zhōñ-ke-air'.
Davoust . . .	{ Dū Shahat.	Jumonville . . .	Zhu'mōñ-veel'.
Dearborn . . .	{ D' lah Barr.	Kennebecasis . . .	Ken-e-bek-ā'sis.
De Caen, Emery . . .	{ D' lah Rōsh.	Kirk, or Kertk . . .	Kirk.
De Cusates . . .	{ Dū Lā-re.	Kondiaronk . . .	Kon-de-a-ronk'.
De la Barre . . .	{ Dū Mōñ.	Lachine . . .	Lah-sheen'.
De la Roche . . .	{ Dū Ro-bair-vahl'.	La Hève . . .	Lah Hāv.
De Léry . . .	{ Del'a-wair.	Lallemant . . .	Lahl-mahñ'.
De Monta . . .	{ Dā-nōñ-veel'.	L'Assomption . . .	Lah-sōmp-se-ññ'.
De Roberval . . .	{ Nē'ko-lah' Dā- nee.	Lauson . . .	Lō-zōñ.
Delaware . . .	{ Dā-shahñ'.	Laval . . .	Lah-vahl.
Denonville . . .	{ Dū-zert'.	Le Caron . . .	Lū Kah-rōñ.
Denys, Nico- las . . .	{ Dā-meul.	Le George . . .	Lū Zorzh.
Deschamps . . .	{ Dā-toor-nel'.	Le Jeune . . .	Lū Zheun.
Desert, Mount . . .	{ Dā-toor-nel'.	Le Moyne . . .	Lū Mwawn.
Des Meules . . .	{ Dee-bair-veel'.	Lescarbot, Marc . . .	Mark Lā-kar'bo'.
D'Estournelle . . .	{ Dee-ep'.	Levi . . .	Lā-vee.
D'Iberville . . .	{ De-es'kow.	L'Omeron . . .	Lō'mā-rōñ'.
Dieppe . . .	{ Dū-shahñ-bōñ.	Longueuil . . .	Lōñ-geu-ēy'.
Dieskau . . .	{ Dū-shai-no'.	Loudoun . . .	Loo'don.
Duchambou . . .	{ Du-pwee'.	Louisburg . . .	Loo'is-burg.
Duchesneau . . .	{ Du Kain.	Louison . . .	Loo-sōñ.
Dupuis . . .	{ Du Tā.	M. for Monsieur . . .	Mōs-yeu'
Du Quesne . . .	{ Du Vee've-ā'.	Madawaska . . .	Mad-a-wōs'ka.
Du Thet . . .	{ Ahñ-frahñ-kah- leu.	Magaguadavic . . .	{ Mak-a-dā've, ori- ginally written, Magaquadvie.
Du Vivier . . .	{ Ahñ-sān-yeu-ree.	Maisonnette . . .	Mā-zon-neuv'.
Elgin . . .	{ Er'ik Rōd.	Maman, Grand . . .	Grand Mān-āñ'.
En franc alleu . . .	{ Etienne, Claude . . .		
En seigneurie . . .	{ Kōd A-te-en'.		
Eric Raude . . .	{ Fleur-dū-lee.		
Etienne, Claude . . .			
Fleurs-de-lis . . .			

Manitou . . .	Man/'t-too.
Marguerite . . .	Mar-gü-reet.
Marquette . . .	Mar-ke't/.
Mascarene . . .	Mas-kä-reen/.
Masse, Enemond . . .	A-nä-möñ/ Mahss.
Maugerville . . .	Mä/'j-r-vil.
Mazarin . . .	Mäz-a-reen/, or Mah-zah-räñ/.
M'Donough . . .	Mak-dön/'ah.
Memberton . . .	Mem/'ber-too/.
Menneval . . .	Men-vahl/.
Mesnard . . .	Mä-nar/.
Nécy . . .	Mä-zee.
Michillimack- inac . . .	Mish/'l-e-mak/'in- aw.
Millicetes . . .	Mil/'i-seets.
Mines . . .	Meen, or Mi/'näs.
Miquelon . . .	Meek-'lön/, or Mik-'lön/.
Miramichi . . .	Mir-a-mish ee/.
Monongahela . . .	Mo-nön/'ga-hé/la.
Montcalm . . .	Möñ-kahm.
Montigny . . .	Möñ-teen/ye.
Montmorency . . .	Mönt-mo-ren/see.

Nachouac, <i>now</i> . . .	Nash/'wauk.
Nashwaak . . .	Nash/'wauk.
Narragansett . . .	När-rä-gan/set.
Nepisiguit . . .	Ne-plz/'i-gwit.

Ojibaway . . .	O-jib/'ä-wä.
Onondaga . . .	On-on-daw/ga.
Oswego . . .	Oz-we/go.
Oulgoudi . . .	We-goo/de.

Papineau . . .	Pah-pe-'no/.
Pembina . . .	Pem/'bi-na.
Penoull . . .	Pen/'oo-il.
Perrot . . .	Pär-röt/.
Petite guerre . . .	P'etee gair.
Pontchartrain . . .	Pöñ-shar-träñ.
Pontgravé . . .	Pöñ-grah-vä/.
Pontiac . . .	Pon/'te-ak.
Poutrincourt . . .	Poo/'träñ-koor.
Presqu'isle . . .	Press-keel/.
Prevost . . .	Prä-vö.
Prideaux . . .	Prä-dö.

Quint . . .	Käñ.
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Rabat . . .	Rah-bah.
Radisson . . .	Rah-dee-söñ/.
Rasle . . .	Rahl.
Raudot . . .	Rö-dö.
Razilli, Isaac . . .	E-zahk/ dü Rah- de zee/ ye.
Recollets . . .	Rü/'kol-ä/.
Rensselaer, Van . . .	Ren/'sel-er.
Richelieu . . .	Reesh/'le-eu, <i>Fr.</i>
Rivière du Loup . . .	Ré-ve-air/ du Loo.
Rochelle . . .	Ro-shel/.
Rossignol . . .	Ros/'seen-yöl/.
Ryswick . . .	Ris/'vik.

Sachem . . .	Sä/'kem, or Sä- chem.
Sagamore . . .	Sag/'a-mör.
Saguenay . . .	Sag/'ä-nä.
Saskatchewan . . .	Sas-katch/'é-wan.
Sault Ste. Marie . . .	Sö Säñt Mah-rä/.
Schenectady . . .	Sken-ek/'tä-de.
Schults . . .	Shoolts.
Schuyler . . .	Ski/'ler.
Seneca . . .	Sen/'e-kah.
Shippegan . . .	Ship-pe-gan/.
Sieur . . .	Se-cur/.
Simon, De . . .	Dü See-möñ/.
Sioux . . .	See-oo/, or Soo.
Soissons, Comte de . . .	Köñt dü Swaw- söñ/.
Souriquois . . .	Soo/'ri-kwaw.
Stadaconé . . .	Stah/'dah-ko-nä/, or Stad-'a-co'na.
St. Croix . . .	Sent Kroi; <i>Fr.</i> Säñt Krwaw.
St. Etienne . . .	Säñt Ä/'te-en/.
St. Eustache . . .	Säñt Eus-tahsh/.
Ste. Foye . . .	Säñt Fwaw.
St. Germain- en-Laye . . .	Säñ Zhair-mañ/- ahñ-Lä/.
St. Malo . . .	Säñ Mah/'lo.
St. Michel . . .	Säñ Mee-shel.
St. Pierre . . .	Säñ Pe-air/.
St. Sauveur . . .	Säñ So-veur/.
St. Sulpicius . . .	Sent Sul-pish/'e-us.
Ste. Thérèse . . .	Säñt Tä-raiz/.
Subercase . . .	Su-'bair-kahz/.

Taché . . .	Tah-shä.
Tadoussac . . .	Tad-oo-sak/.
Tantramar . . .	Tan/'trä-mar/.
Tecumseh . . .	Te-kum/'sä.
Tessouac . . .	Tess/'oo-ak/.
Theophilus . . .	The-oph/'i-lus.
Ticonderoga . . .	Ti-kon/'der-o'ga.
Tourment . . .	Toor-mahñ/.
Trois Pistoles . . .	Trwaw-pé-stöl/.
Troyes . . .	Trwaw.

Utrecht . . .	Ü-trekt/.
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Vandreull . . .	Vo-dreu-'äy/.
Vendôme . . .	Vahñ-döm/.
Ventadour . . .	Vahñ-tah-door/.
Verazzani . . .	Vä-rah-zah/'n.
Verger . . .	Vair-zhä.
Versailles . . .	Eng. Ver-sälz/.
Vespucçi, Ame- rigo . . .	Ah-mé-ree-go Vës- pooch/ee.
Viger . . .	Vee-zhä.
Vignan, Ni- colas . . .	Ne/'ko-lah/ Veen- colas.
Villebon . . .	Veel-böñ.
Ville Marie . . .	Veel Mah-ree/.
Vimond . . .	Vee-möñ.

Wyandot . . .	Wi-an-dot/.
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